THE

ANALYTICAL REVIEW.

FOR OCTOBER, 1798.

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART. I. *Aſiatic Reſearches; or Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted at Bengal for inquiring into the Hiſtory and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Aſia.* 4to. Vol. IV. Calcutta printed, and ſold by Elmſley and Bremner.

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THE ſatisfaction, which we feel in announcing a fourth volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, is not a little damped by the advertiſement, that preſents itſelf on opening the book, reminding us of the heavy loſs which the ſociety has ſuſtained, in the death of it's illuſtrious founder and preſident. Though on various occaſions our regret has been expreſſed for that unfortunate event, and another opportunity, we hope, will ſoon occur of rendering ampler juſtice to his merits, in the review of a complete edition of his works, yet it would be more than inſenſibility, it would be a dereliction of our truſt, to "withhold the paſſing tribute of a ſigh," while deriving inſtruction and amuſement from the annals of an inſtitution, which owed it's exiſtence ſolely to him. The talents, the erudition, the activity, and the name, of ſir W. Jones, would have been conſidered as an acquiſition by the moſt flouriſhing literary or ſcientific body in Europe; but in India, where genius and learning are rare exotics, and to an infant ſociety, he was invaluable. Independent of the importance of his communications conſidered in themſelves, his extenſive and profound acquaintance with oriental letters guided the inquiries of his aſſociates, while his example communicated enthuſiaſm to their purſuits. Far be it from us, however, to inſinuate a ſuſpicion, that the brilliant period of the Aſiatic Society is paſt: it's preſent collected ſtrength is reſpectable; we hope it will receive frequent acceſſions, and that, henceforth, while the riches of the eaſt continue to be wafted to our ſhores, they will alſo be accompanied by it's intellectual treaſures; a tribute which may be levied without oppreſſion, enjoyed without remorſe, and productive of advantages, *quæ fuerint minus obvia graiis.*

Art. 1. *The Tenth Anniverſary Diſcourſe, delivered 28th February 1793, by the Preſident, on Aſiatic Hiſtory, civil and natural.*—Having preſented the ſociety with a ſketch of the wide field of their inquiriſes, namely, the five aſiatic regions on their largeſt ſcale, the preſident now proceeds to diſtinguiſh the objects of reſearch, and to ſtimulate exertion by a repreſentation of the advantages likely to reſult from their united labours. The former he claſſes under the three general heads of *hiſtory*, *ſcience*, and *art*; and by the latter he underſtands not merely worldly utility, 'which too many conſider as ſynonimous with *lucre*,' but all the elegant and innocent pleaſures ſpringing from a cultivated mind, and from enlarged and diverſified ideas. In the preſent diſcourſe, which embraces the firſt general diviſion, he points out the various ſources of information, which aſiatic literature affords, reſpecting the *civil hiſtory*, *geography*, and *chronology* of the country, as well as reſpecting it's *animal*, *mineral*, and *vegetable* productions, with the different *practical arts* founded on a knowledge of theſe. Glancing tranſiently at the literary works preſerved in the *arabic*, *perſian*, *turkiſh*, and *chineſe* languages, he directs his principal attention to the *ſanſcrit*, in which, notwithſtanding the ravages of time and revolutions, many valuable treatiſes ſtill exiſt, and are become acceſſible to us, now that the ſcruples of the *brahmens* are happily obviated, and by their aſſiſtance the fantaſtic veil of mythology and metaphor may be removed. Of theſe the *Puranas* and *Itihaſas*, or heroic poems, and the *Upavedas*, or diſſertations on mechanical arts, ſeem to promiſe the richeſt reward to the reſearches of the antiquary. But, not to attempt an analyſis of what is itſelf a maſterly and comprehenſive analyſis of aſiatic hiſtory, we ſhall extract two paſſages of a general nature, confident, that the noble and humane ſentiments, which they breathe, will render them acceptable to every reader.

P. ix.—'A deſire, indeed, of knowing paſt events, while the future cannot be known, and a view of the preſent gives often more pain than delight, ſeems natural to the human mind; and a happy propenſity would it be, if every reader of hiſtory would open his eyes to ſome very important corollaries, which flow from the whole extent of it. He could not but remark the conſtant effect of *deſpotiſm* in benumbing and debaſing all thoſe faculties, which diſtinguiſh men from the herd that grazes; and to that cauſe he would impute the decided inferiority of moſt *aſiatic* nations, ancient and modern, to thoſe in *Europe* who are bleſt with happier governments; he would ſee the *arabs* riſing to glory, while they adhered to the free maxims of their bold anceſtors, and ſinking to miſery from the moment when thoſe maxims were abandoned. On the other hand, he would obſerve with regret, that ſuch *republican* governments as tend to produce virtue and happineſs, cannot in their nature be permanent, but are generally ſucceeded by *oligarchies*, which no good man would wiſh to be durable. He would then, like the king of *Lydia*, remember *Solon*, the wiſeſt, braveſt, and moſt accompliſhed of men, who aſſerts in four nervous lines, that, "as *hail and ſnow*, which mar the labours of the huſbandman, *proceed from* elevated *clouds, and*, as *the* deſtructive *thunderbolt follows the brilliant flaſh, thus is a free ſtate ruined by men exalted* in power and ſplendid in wealth, *while the people*,

people, from groſs ignorance, chuſe rather to *become the ſlaves of one tyrant,* that they may eſcape from the domination of many, than to preſerve themſelves from tyranny of any kind, by their union and their virtues."

P. xiv.—'Could the figure, inſtincts, and qualities of birds, beaſts, inſects, reptiles, and fiſhes, be aſcertained, either on the plan of *Buffon*, or on that of *Linnæus*, without giving pain to the objects of our examination, few ſtudies would afford us more ſolid inſtruction or more exquiſite delight; but I never could learn by what right, nor conceive with what feelings, a naturaliſt can occaſion the miſery of an innocent bird, and leave it's young perhaps to periſh in a cold neſt, becauſe it has gay plumage, and has never been accurately delineated; or deprive even a butterfly of it's natural enjoyments, becauſe it has the misfortune to be rare or beautiful; nor ſhall I ever forget the couplet of *Firdauſi*, for which *Sadi*, who cites it with applauſe, pours bleſſings on his departed ſpirit:

"Ah! ſpare yon emmet, rich in hoarded grain;
He lives with pleaſure, and he dies with pain."

'This may be only a confeſſion of weakneſs, and it certainly is not meant as a boaſt of peculiar ſenſibility; but, whatever name may be given to my opinion, it has ſuch an effect on my conduct, that I never would ſuffer the *cocila*, whoſe *wild native wood-notes* announce the approach of ſpring, to be caught in my garden for the ſake of comparing it with *Buffon's* deſcription; though I have often examined the domeſtic and engaging *mayana*, which *bids us good-morrow at our windows*, and expects, as it's reward, little more than ſecurity: even when a fine young *manis* or *pangolin* was brought me, againſt my wiſh, from the mountains, I ſolicited his reſtoration to his beloved rocks, becauſe I found it impoſſible to preſerve him in comfort at a diſtance from them. On the whole, though rare animals may be found in all *Aſia*, yet I can only recommend an examination of them with this condition, that they be left, as much as poſſible, in a ſtate of natural freedom, or made as happy as poſſible, if it be neceſſary to keep them confined.'

Art. 2. *On three Natural Productions of Sumatra. By J. Macdonald, Eſq.*

On the Camphor of Sumatra.—The tree, which yields this ſubſtance, differs only by a ſmall variation in the form of the leaf from the *arbor camphorifera Japonica, foliis laurinis, fructu parvo, calyce breviſſimo*, and is one of the *enneandria monogynia* of Linnæus. When Mr. Marſden wrote his hiſtory of Sumatra, it was generally ſuppoſed, that camphor oil and ſolid camphor were never found in the ſame tree; while others were of opinion, that the latter was obtained by a chemical proceſs. Mr. M., from ocular evidence, diſproves both theſe aſſertions, and ſtates, that camphor is nothing elſe but oil concreted by the operation of the ſun, in trees of a certain age, where it is found in ſmall whitiſh flakes near the centre. After being waſhed in ſoapy water, and paſſed through ſieves, it is divided into *head*, *belly*, and *foot* camphor, according to it's quality. An inferior kind, indeed, is obtained by diſtillation of the

oil; and *capoor-matee*, or dead camphor, is generally procured by boiling the thickeſt part of the oil, or taking the ſediment of the beſt. The whole is ſent to the chineſe market, and what europeans purchaſe from it is previouſly adulterated with a mixture of japaneſe camphor.

On the Coral of Sumatra.—Our author firſt diſcuſſes the opinions of *Boccone*, *Marſigli*, and *Peyſſonnel*, reſpecting the vegetable or cretaceous nature of coral; but as he advances nothing new on this point, we paſs on to the main ſubject of his paper, namely, the formation of iſlands on the weſt coaſt of Sumatra, by the rapid growth of this wonderful production of nature. This fact, hitherto unrecorded in the annals of natural hiſtory, Mr. M. confirms by ſeveral inſtances, that have fallen under his own obſervation, particularly one of a ſhoal, which in 1784 was covered by two feet and a half water, and in 1789 formed a ſandy iſland, about ten yards in diameter, with a few buſhes growing on it, and lying in nearly thirty-ſeven fathoms of water. In this manner, and not by earthquakes as ſome imagine, have the numerous iſlands on the coaſt of Sumatra been formed; and in proceſs of time, various groups in the eaſtern archipelago may be united into one continent. On this principle, a ſheltering iſland in the immediate front of Madras, where ſo many accidents happen from expoſed anchorage, might be begun, by tranſporting thither and ſinking with ſtones, &c., a conſiderable quantity of coral, which, probably, in forty or fifty years might ſurmount the waves, and anſwer the intended purpoſe. This idea, as the preſident juſtly obſerves, is very ſublime; but dangerous reefs, it is to be feared, might precede the appearance of the iſland.

On the Copper of Sumatra.—A very flattering proſpect is here held out to the Eaſt India company of advantages likely to reſult from the opening of copper mines on the weſt coaſt of Sumatra. A conſiderable quantity of ore is at preſent collected on the ſurface of the hills, and the veins are found to widen as far as they have been traced; but the natives are too ignorant and indolent to purſue them. The ore on being ſmelted diſcovers a conſiderable portion of gold, from which circumſtance, combined with others, it is probable, that the diſcovery of gold mines would ſucceed the eſtabliſhment of copper ones on the hills of *Annalaboo*.

Art. 3. *On the Plant Morinda, and it's Uſes. By W. Hunter, Eſq.*—This plant, which forms an important branch of the commerce of *Malava*, is the *morinda citrifolia* of Linnæus, though Mr. H. never obſerved any ſuch ſimilitude in the ſpecimens, which came under his eye. A very particular deſcription is given of it's ſtructure, the mode and expenſe of it's cultivation, and of it's uſe in dying. For an account of the proceſs, and the other ingredients employed, we muſt refer to the article at large, which appears equally minute and accurate.

Art. 4. *On the Inhabitants of the Hills near Rajamahall. By Lieut. Thomas Shaw.*—The value of this communication, to europeans at leaſt, ſeems to bear no proportion to the room which it occupies in the volume. Theſe mountaineers, who are of low ſtature, with flat noſes and thick lips, remain in a ſtate of barbarous ignorance, totally

totally unacquainted with letters, figures, or hieroglyphics, poſſeſſing in their own language no other numerals than one and two, and equally ſtrangers to agriculture and manufactures. In the tedious detail of their rites and ceremonies, the moſt prominent feature, as in more poliſhed ſtages of ſociety, is the undue privileges and influence of the *maungies* or chiefs, and the *demaunnos* or prieſts, whom the paſſive credulity of the people has enabled to aſſume ſuperiority and practiſe impoſture, with a ſucceſs beyond their dexterity.

Art. 5. *Additional Remarks on the Spikenard of the Ancients. By the Preſident.*—'Nearly at the time,' ſays ſir W. J., 'when the reſult of my firſt enquiries concerning ſpikenard was publiſhed in the ſecond volume of our *Aſiatic Reſearches*, there appeared in the *Philoſophical Tranſactions* an account of the *Andropogon Iwarárncuſa*, the ſpecimen of which Dr. Blane had received from *Lucnow*, and which he ſuppoſes to be the true *indick* nard of Dioſcorides and Galen; having more than once read his arguments with pleaſure, but not with conviction, I feel it incumbent on me to ſtate my reaſons for diſſenting from the learned phyſician, with all the freedom of a ſearcher for truth, but without any diminution of that reſpect, to which his knowledge and candour juſtly entitle him.' It is impoſſible for us to follow ſir W. J. in his remarks; ſuffice it to ſay, that the ſcholar, the critic, the geographer, the botaniſt, and the gentleman, are equally conſpicuous in them; and if Dr. Blane muſt relinquiſh his hypotheſis as defenceleſs, which we think he certainly muſt, he has at leaſt the conſolation of falling by no common hand. *Æneæ magni dextra cadis.*

Art. 6. *On the Dhanéſa, or Indian Buceros. By Lieut. C. White; communicated by Lieut. Fraſer.*—This remarkable genus of birds, ſo ſtrikingly diſtinguiſhed by a hollow protuberance at the baſe of the upper mandible, which gives it the appearance of a double beak, are not unknown to our naturaliſts, but we are indebted to lieut. W. for the firſt complete deſcription of the different ſpecies, and for the ſingular fact of their feeding on the *nux vomica*, or *colubrina*. The lieutenant has alſo inſerted meaſurements, taken by himſelf, of the largeſt bird of the kind ever ſeen by him.

Art. 7. *On the Iſlands Nancowry and Comarty. By Lieut. H. Colebrooke.*—The Nicobar iſles, of which theſe form a part, were deſcribed by Mr. Fontana, in the third volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches. In addition to his remarks, our author, who had occaſion to viſit them, preſents us with a few particulars, and an account of an extraordinary ceremony, annually performed in honour of the dead. Nancowry and Comarty, which appear to be the beſt peopled, contain each about ſixty-four ſquare miles, and together nearly 800 inhabitants. Their villages, thirteen in number, (a view of one of which is here given,) are all ſituate on the ſea ſhore. The houſes are built on piles, ſix or eight feet from the ground, and ſometimes ſo near the margin of the water, that the tide flows under, and waſhes away the ordure from below. The natural productions of the Nicobar iſlands are cocoa-nuts, *papias*, plantains, limes, tamarinds, beetle nuts, the *mellori*, the *mangoſtain* tree, and pine-apples of a delicious flavour. Yams are cultivated and thrive, but rice is unknown. The danes have a ſmall ſettlement on Nancowry, conſiſting

conſiſting of two houſes, a ſerjeant and three or four ſoldiers, a few black ſlaves, and two ruſty old pieces of ordnance.

Art. 8. *On the Loris or ſlow paced Lemur. By the Preſident.*—This is a very pleaſing article, written intirely in the ſpirit of thoſe inſtructions, which we have juſt tranſcribed from the preſident's diſcourſe on civil and natural hiſtory. This animal, which ſir W. J. had ſent to him from *Dacca*, has been correctly deſcribed by Linnæus, but the ſhort account of it given by Buffon, as well as the figure, he informs us, are unſatisfactory, and it's temper and inſtincts remained undeſcribed. 'I have, therefore, ſet down a few remarks,' ſays he, 'on the *form*, the *manners*, the *name*, and the *country*, of my little favourite, who engaged my affection while he lived, and whoſe memory I wiſh to perpetuate.' A perfectly accurate figure accompanied the original communication, of which we cannot pretend to ſay whether the preſent engraving be a faithful copy.

Art. 9. *Aſtronomical Obſervations made on the upper Parts of Hinduſtan, and on a Journey thence to Oujein. By W. Hunter, Eſq.*—Theſe conſiſt of menſurations of the ſun's diameter, obſervations of latitude, and of the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites.

Art. 10. *Queſtions and Remarks on the Aſtronomy of the Hindus. By J. Playfair, A. M. Profeſſor of Mathematics, at Edinburgh; written 10th of October, 1792.*—Induced by the invitation given in the advertiſement prefixed to the ſecond volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, the profeſſor, with a laudable zeal for the improvement and extenſion of aſtronomical knowledge, propoſes ſeveral queſtions on that ſubject to the ſociety of Bengal, for which we refer to the next article, (the preſident's eleventh annual diſcourſe,) where conciſe anſwers to them are given, as well as a general account of indian aſtronomy and mathematics.

Art. 11. *Diſcourſe the Eleventh: on the Philoſophy of the Aſiatics. Delivered 20th February, 1794, by the Preſident.*—Of the three general heads, under which, to methodize and facilitate the reſearches of the ſociety, the preſident arranged the copious ſtores of oriental knowledge, that of *hiſtory* was the ſubject of his tenth diſcourſe. The *abſtract ſciences* now occupy his conſideration; of which, inexhauſtible and abſtruſe as they are, he gives a comprehenſive and lucid epitome, diſcovering at once an extenſive acquaintance with philoſophy in general, and unrivalled progreſs in hindu literature. It was his endeavour, he informs us, to ſay as much as poſſible in the feweſt words. He writes, indeed, like one full of his ſubject; with a vaſt maſs of materials at command, his only taſk at preſent is ſelection. Hence every ſentence is pregnant with inſtruction, and the ſuperiority of original over borrowed learning is ſtrongly conſpicuous, on a compariſon of this eſſay with what Dr. Robertſon ſays on the ſame topic, in the appendix to his Diſquiſition on India. The doctor was a writer of acknowledged abilities, and on that occaſion, prepared himſelf by conſulting every european ſource of information; yet his view of indian philoſophy is dim and diſtant, and his outline meagre and defective. They, on the contrary, who enter the wide regions of aſiatic ſcience with ſir W. J., will find a guide, equally intelligent and diſcriminating, to conduct them through the luxuriant and bewildering maze, to point out the leading objects

jects in their order, and trace the characteriſtic features of the whole.

The limits of our review preclude us from accompanying him through the various departments of '*phyſiology and medicine, metaphyſics and logic, ethics and juriſprudence, natural philoſophy and mathematics*, from which the *religion of nature* has in all nations been the ſublime and conſoling reſult.' But we ſhall tranſcribe the fourth article, as extremely curious in itſelf, and affording anſwers to profeſſor Playfair's queſtions, which may be acceptable to other mathematicians.

P. 179.—'I have already had occaſion to touch on the indian metaphyſics of *natural bodies* according to the moſt celebrated of the aſiatic ſchools, from which the pythagoreans are ſuppoſed to have borrowed many of their opinions; and as we learn from Cicero, that the old ſages of Europe had an idea of *centripetal force* and a principle of *univerſal gravitation*, (which they never indeed attempted to demonſtrate,) ſo I can venture to affirm, without meaning to pluck a leaf from the never-fading laurels of our immortal Newton, that the whole of his theology and part of his philoſophy may be found in the *Vedas* and even in the works of the *Sufis:* that *moſt ſubtil ſpirit*, which he ſuſpected to pervade natural bodies, and, lying concealed in them, to cauſe attraction and repulſion, the emiſſion, reflection, and refraction of light, electricity, calefaction, ſenſation, and muſcular motion, is deſcribed by the hindus as a *fifth element* endued with thoſe very powers; and the *Vedas* abound with alluſions to a force univerſally attractive, which they chiefly aſcribe to the ſun, thence called *Aditya* or the *Attractor*; a name deſigned by the mythologiſts to mean the child of the goddeſs Aditi; but the moſt wonderful paſſage on the theory of attraction occurs in the charming allegorical poem of *Shirin* and *Ferhad*, or the *Divine Spirit* and *a Human Soul diſintereſtedly pious*; a work which, from the firſt verſe to the laſt, is a blaze of religious and poetical fire. The whole paſſage appears to me ſo curious, that I make no apology for giving you a faithful tranſlation of it: "There is a ſtrong propenſity, which dances through every atom, and attracts the minuteſt particle to ſome peculiar object; ſearch this univerſe from its baſe to its ſummit, from fire to air, from water to earth, from all below the moon to all above the celeſtial ſpheres; and thou wilt not find a corpuſcle deſtitute of that natural attractability; the very point of the firſt thread, in this apparently tangled ſkein, is no other than ſuch a principle of attraction, and all principles beſide are void of a real baſis; from ſuch a propenſity ariſes every motion perceived in heavenly or in terreſtrial bodies; it is a diſpoſition to be attracted, which taught hard ſteel to ruſh from its place and rivet itſelf on the magnet: it is the ſame diſpoſition, which impels the light ſtraw to attach itſelf firmly on amber; it is this quality, which gives every ſubſtance in nature a tendency toward another, and an inclination forcibly directed to a determinate point." Theſe notions are vague, indeed, and unſatisfactory; but permit me to aſk, whether the laſt paragraph of Newton's incomparable work goes much farther, and whether any ſubſequent experiments have thrown light on a ſubject ſo abſtruſe and obſcure: that the ſublime aſtronomy

and exquiſitely beautiful geometry, with which that work is illumined, ſhould in any degree be approached by the mathematicians of *Aſia*, while of all *europeans*, who ever lived, Archimedes alone was capable of emulating them, would be a vain expectation; but we muſt ſuſpend our opinion of indian aſtronomical knowledge, till the *Surya Siddhanta* ſhall appear in our own language, and even then (to adopt a phraſe of Cicero) our *greedy and capacious ears* will by no means be ſatisfied; for in order to complete an hiſtorical account of genuine *hindu* aſtronomy, we require verbal tranſlations of, at leaſt, three other *ſanſcrit* books; of the treatiſe by Paraſara, for the firſt age of *indian* ſcience, of that by Varaha, with the copious comment of his very learned ſon, for the middle age, and of thoſe written by Bhaſcara, for times comparatively modern. The valuable and now acceſſible works of the laſt mentioned philoſopher, contain alſo an *univerſal* or *ſpecious* arithmetic, with one chapter, at leaſt, on geometry; nor would it ſurely be difficult to procure, through our ſeveral reſidents with the *Piſhwa* and with *Scindhya*, the older books on algebra, which Bhaſcara mentions, and on which Mr. Davies would juſtly ſet a very high value; but the *ſanſcrit* work, from which we might expect the moſt ample and important information, is entitled *Cſhetraderſa*, or *a View of geometrical Knowledge*, and was compiled in a very large volume, by order of the illuſtrious Jayaſinha, compriſing all that remains on that ſcience in the ſacred language of *india:* it was inſpected in the weſt by a pandit, now in the ſervice of lieutenant Wilford, and might, I am perſuaded, at *Jayanagar*, where colonel Polier had permiſſion from the *raja* to buy the four *Vedas* themſelves. Thus have I anſwered, to the beſt of my power, the three firſt queſtions obligingly tranſmitted to us by profeſſor Playfair; whether the *hindus* have books in *ſanſcrit* expreſsly on geometry, whether they have any ſuch on arithmetic, and whether a tranſlation of the *Surya Siddhanta* be not the great *deſideratum* on the ſubject of *indian* aſtronomy: to his three laſt queſtions, whether an accurate ſummary account of all the *ſanſcrit* works on that ſubject, a delineation of the *indian* celeſtial ſphere, with correct remarks on it, and a deſcription of the aſtronomical inſtruments uſed by the ancient *hindus*, would not ſeverally be of great utility, we cannot but anſwer in the affirmative, provided that the utmoſt critical ſagacity were applied in diſtinguiſhing ſuch works, conſtellations, and inſtruments, as are clearly of *indian* origin, from ſuch as were introduced into this country, by muſſelman aſtronomers from *Tartary* and *Perſia*, or in later days by mathematicians from *Europe*.'

Art. 12. *A Diſcourſe delivered at a Meeting of the Aſiatic Society, on the 22d of May*, 1794, *by Sir John Shore, Bart., Preſident.*—Of this juſt tribute of reſpect, offered by the new preſident to the memory of his predeceſſor, our readers will find an intereſting extract, comprehending the greater part of it, in the twenty-fourth volume of the Analytical Review, page 512.

Art. 13. *A Treatiſe on the Barometer. By F. Balfour, Eſq.*—This is a curious article. The reſult of a ſeries of obſervations on the barometer, made by the author, every half hour, both day and night, for a complete lunation, at Calcutta, in the month of april, 1794, was as follows:—1. That, in the interval between ten at night and ſix in the morning, there exiſted a *prevailing tendency* in the mercury

to

to *fall*. 2. That in the interval between ſix and ten in the morning, there exiſted a *prevailing tendency* in the mercury to *riſe*. 3. That in the interval between ten in the morning and ſix in the evening, there exiſted a *prevailing tendency* in the mercury to *fall*. 4. That in the interval between ſix and ten in the evening, there exiſted a *prevailing tendency* in the mercury to *riſe*.' As ſimilar tendencies have been obſerved to prevail on the oppoſite ſide of the globe, (ſee Dr. Moſely's Treatiſe on Tropical Diſeaſes, p. 550—556) it ſeems fair to conclude, that ſuch a law of nature exiſts in certain latitudes, when conſequently no correct philoſophical inveſtigation, or juſt prognoſtication concerning the atmoſphere, can be formed without giving it a place.

Art. 14. *On the Duties of a faithful Hindu Widow. By H. Colebrooke, Eſq.*—Of the religious rites and ceremonies of the hindus none has excited greater or more general attention in Europe, than the practice of widows burning themſelves on the funeral pile of their deceaſed huſbands. But our compilations, as Mr. C. informs us, and as might be expected, betray great want of judgment, information he ſhould have ſaid, in the ſelection of authorities, and contain much errour blended with truth. To obviate this, he has induſtriouſly collected from *ſanſcrit* books all the ceremonies eſſential to this awful rite. We are glad to find, that the martyrs of this ſuperſtition have never been numerous, and that now they are very rare.

Art. 15. *On the Traces of the Hindu Language and Literature, extant among the Malays. By W. Marſden, Eſq.*—The connection between the ſanſcrit and malayan languages had been noticed by ſir W. J., in his ninth annual diſcourſe, and now Mr. M., author of the Hiſtory of Sumatra, makes it evident from the number of *ſanſcrit* words, thoroughly incorporated in the latter, from the hindu arrangement of the letters, which the malays have adopted, but principally from the frequent alluſions in their writings to the *Mahabharat* and the *Ramayan*. To this intermixture he thinks the malayan dialect is indebted for it's ſuperiority over the other branches of that widely extended parent language, which prevails from Madagaſcar, on the one ſide, to Eaſter iſland, on the other, a ſpace of full two hundred degrees of longitude.

Art. 16. *A Catalogue of Indian Plants, comprehending their Sanſcrit, and as many of their Linnean generic Names, as could with any degree of Preciſion be aſcertained. By the late Preſident.*—Of about 420 plants contained in this catalogue ſir W. J. was not able to identify more than one half, ſo much have the pandits themſelves forgotten the ancient appellations: but as it is a matter of importance to literature and ſcience, to all who wiſh to read the poets, or conſult the phyſicians of India, ſuch perſons we hope will ſeize the opportunity, ere it be for ever loſt, and complete the labours of the preſident on this intereſting ſubject.

Art. 17. *Botanical Obſervations on ſelect Indian Plants. By the late Preſident.*—This article has a double claim on our attention, from it's intrinſic merit, and as being the laſt compoſition read to the Aſiatic Society by it's illuſtrious founder. The plants, ſeventy-eight in number, were ſelected 'for their novelty, beauty, poetical fame, reputed uſe in medicine, or ſuppoſed holineſs.' The author's great aim was to aſcertain the true indian appellatives, for which inveſtiga-

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tion, neither Rheede, Rumphius, nor Kœnig, was ſufficiently verſed in the hindu literature; and though the european botaniſt may be ſatisfied with accurate *deſcriptions*, yet ſuch will not ſerve as a key to the poetical and medical writings of the eaſt; and the travelling phyſician, who ſhould hunt for an indian plant in the woods, by it's *botanical character*, without aſking for it by it's indigenous name, 'would reſemble a geographer, who, deſiring to find his way in a foreign city or province, ſhould never enquire by name, for a ſtreet or town, but wait with his tables and inſtruments for a proper occaſion to determine it's longitude and latitude.' The claſſical or *ſanſcrit* appellations and ſynonyma, therefore, are firſt given, then the names in the vulgar dialects, and laſtly the linnean genera, accompanied with deſcriptions from living ſpecimens, when thoſe of former botaniſts appeared inaccurate or defective, and illuſtrated by frequent references to ancient compoſitions, and to ſtill exiſting opinions. A ſimilar plan, if adopted in the continuation of Dr. Roxburgh's ſplendid work, would, we think, be a conſiderable improvement; but for ſuch a taſk it is not eaſy to find a perſon ſo well qualified as ſir W. J. His deſcriptions, which are in engliſh, do him no leſs credit as a diſciple of Linnæus.

Art. 18. *A Deſcription of the Cuttub Minar. By Enſign J. T. Blunt, of the Engineers.*

Art. 19. *Aſtronomical Obſervations, made on a Voyage to the Andaman and Nicobar Iſlands. By Lieutenant H. Colebrooke.*

Art. 20. *Aſtronomical Obſervations, made on a Survey through the Carnatic and Myſore Country. By the ſame.*

Art. 21. *Table of Latitudes and Longitudes, of ſome principal Places in India, determined from aſtronomical Obſervations. By Mr. Reuben Burrow. Communicated by Lieut. H. Colebrooke.*

Art. 22. *On ſome extraordinary Facts, Cuſtoms, and Practices, of the Hindus. By the Preſident.*—This is the only communication, except the above mentioned eulogium on his predeceſſor, with which ſir J. S. has favoured the ſociety. He pleads want of leiſure as his excuſe; want of health alſo might, perhaps, have been added, for we are ſorry to underſtand, that on this account, he has ſince been obliged to return to England. The cuſtoms here enumerated are certainly extraordinary, and more particularly ſo when we conſider the ſcene where they prevail; were they not, indeed, well authenticated from official documents, ſuch inſtances of gloomy ſuperſtition, and unbridled paſſion, might be deemed utterly inconſiſtent with that humanity and mildneſs of diſpoſition, ſo generally aſcribed to the natives of Hindoſtan. The firſt practice, mentioned by our author, is called *dherna*, which may be tranſlated *caption* or *arreſt*. It is founded on the inviolability of a *brahmen*, and is made uſe of to gain a point that cannot be obtained by any other means. 'The *brahmen*, who adopts this expedient, proceeds to the door, or the houſe of the perſon, againſt whom it is directed, or wherever it may moſt conveniently intercept him; he there ſets [*ſits*] down in *dherna*, with poiſon, or a poignard, or ſome other inſtrument of ſuicide in his hand, and threatening to uſe it, if his adverſary ſhould attempt to moleſt or paſs him, he thus completely arreſts him.' In this ſituation they both remain faſting, till the inſtitutor of the *dherna* obtains

obtains ſatisfaction. The next cuſtom is denominated erecting a *koor*, that is, a circular pile of wood, with a cow, or old woman placed on it, the whole of which is conſumed together. Then follow inſtances of parricide, in ſeveral of it's deepeſt degrees. It muſt appear ſingular, that all theſe were perpetrated by *brahmens*, and that the victims of their violence were not the objects of their reſentment, but were generally ſacrificed with their own conſent, and with a view of bringing down vengeance on the offenders. One tribe is charged with the atrocious cuſtom of deſtroying their female progeny; and recent inſtances are on record of perſons having been put to death for the ſuppoſed practice of ſorcery and witchcraft.

Art. 23. *Deſcription of the Yak of Tartary, called Soora-Goy, or the Buſhy-tailed Bull of Thibet. By Lieutenant S. Turner. With a Plate.*

Art. 24. *A Deſcription of the Joneſia. By Dr. Roxburgh. With a figure.*

Art. 25. *Aſtronomical Obſervations, by W. Hunter Eſq.*

Art. 26. *A Diſſertation on Semiramis, the Origin of Mecca, &c. From the Hindu ſacred Books. By Lieut. F. Wilford.*—That the mythological fictions, and metaphyſical ſyſtems, of ancient Greece, were derived from the eaſt, has been always known and admitted by the learned, but the felicity of tracing them individually in the original *ſanſcrit* was reſerved for our own days, and our own countrymen. The extenſive territories acquired by Britain, in the centre of Hindoſtan, afford unrivalled opportunities for becoming acquainted with it's literature, and fortunately ſeveral gentlemen have lately embraced the propitious juncture, and leaving the ſole purſuit of ſordid lucre to the general herd, have devoted themſelves to literary and ſcientific reſearches. Among theſe lieutenant W. holds a diſtinguiſhed rank, and it will not be neceſſary for us to add any thing reſpecting the preſent article, after quoting what ſir W. J., in his tenth annual diſcourſe, ſays of it's author, and Mr. Davies, another gentleman, well known to oriental ſcholars.—'We may expect the moſt important diſcoveries from two of our members; concerning whom it may be ſafely aſſerted, that if our ſociety ſhould have produced no other advantage than the invitation given to them for the public diſplay of their talents, we ſhould have a claim to the thanks of our country, and of all Europe.'

Art. 27. *On the Andaman Iſles. By Lieut. R. H. Colebrooke.*—The geographer and naturaliſt are conſiderably obliged to lieut. C. for his entertaining and ſeemingly accurate account of theſe iſlands, which, till lately, were extremely little known. This he accounts for from the ferocious and ſanguinary diſpoſition of the inhabitants, 'a race of men the leaſt civilized, perhaps, in the world,' which has made ſeamen prefer foundering in the main ocean, to being caſt away on theſe coaſts. Among the productions of the Andaman iſlands, two deſerve particular notice: a tree, which grows to an enormous ſize, one having been found to meaſure thirty feet in circumference, producing a very rich dye, that might be of uſe in manufactures;' and the celebrated 'edible neſts, an article of commerce in the China market, where they are ſold at a very high price.'

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Art. 28. *On Barren Iſland, and it's Volcano. By the ſame. With a Plate*—This barren ſpot is ſituate fifteen leagues to the eaſtward of the Andaman iſlands. Our author's conjectures reſpecting it's origin the naturaliſt may compare with Mr. Macdonald's diſquiſition on the growth of the coral of Sumatra.

Art. 29. *Extract from a Diary of a Journey over the great Deſert, from Aleppo to Buſſora, in April* 1782. *Communicated by Sir W. Dunkin, and publiſhed with a View to direct the Attention of future Travellers to the Ruins deſcribed in it.*

Art. 30. *Proſopis Aculeata, Kœnig. Tſhamie of the Hindus, in the northern Circars. By Dr. Roxburgh. With a Figure.*

Art. 31. *Some Account of the Cave, in the Iſland of Elephanta. By J. Goldingham, Eſq. Communicated by J. Carnac. With a Plate.*—This is, we believe, the moſt correct, as it certainly is the moſt recent, deſcription of the cave juſt mentioned. That ſuch a ſtupendous excavation of the ſolid rock, concerning which no tradition exiſts, ſhould have given riſe to various conjectures reſpecting it's origin and uſe is very natural. Mr. G. is decidedly of the common opinion, that it was a *hindu* temple, and thinks the ſculptures clearly characteriſtic of ſome of the principle deities, or rather attributes of the one deity, in the indian mythology. Mr. Carnac, however, in a prefatory letter to the preſident, differs entirely from Mr. G.; and it ſurely is not for us to hazard an opinion on a queſtion, which we are by no means competent to decide.

Art. 32. *An Account of the preſent State of Delhi. By Lieut. W. Francklin*—This paper furniſhes a ſad picture of the fickleneſs of fortune, and the inſtability of human greatneſs. Delhi, 'the capital of muſſulman ſovereignty in Hindoſtan, and in more early times the ſeat of hindu dominion over northern India,' is already reduced to the wrecks of it's priſtine ſplendour, and ſeems indeed faſt haſtening to total deſolation. It's environs 'appear now nothing more than a ſhapeleſs heap of ruins; and the country round about is equally forlorn.' The ingenious and elegant author has lately favoured the public with a valuable hiſtory of Shah Allum, the preſent emperor of Hindoſtan [ſee Anal. Rev. for may laſt, p. 465], to which this article, with ſome others, is ſubjoined by way of appendix.

Art. 33. *Botanical Obſervations on the Spikenard of the Ancients; intended as a Supplement to the late Sir W. Jones's Papers on that Plant. By W. Roxburgh*, M. D. *With a Figure.*

The octavo edition of this work is the fourth of a ſeries, publiſhed in London under the title of Diſſertations relative to the Hiſtory, &c. of Aſia. The three former of which contained only a ſelection of the more important parts of the aſiatic reſearches. The preſent differs from them in being a complete republication of the original. For references to our accounts of the preceding volumes of both publications the reader will pleaſe to turn to Anal. Rev. vol. xxiv, p. 511.

A. B.

TRAVELS. VOYAGES.

Art. 11. *Conſtantinople Ancient and Modern, with Excurſions to the Shores and Iſlands of the Archipelago and to the Troad.* By James Dallaway,

Dallaway, M. B. F. S. A. late Chaplain and Phyſician of the Britiſh Embaſſy to the Porte. 4to. 427 pages, with 10 plates. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

'To deſcribe the ancient ſtate and ſplendour of Conſtantinople after the elaborate inveſtigations of Petrus Gyllius, Du Cange, and Bandurus, taken from the authorities of the byzantine hiſtorians,' ſays Mr. D., p. 13, 'or after that more perfect picture which Gibbon has drawn from the ſame originals, with a reſemblance that every modern traveller muſt own with admiration, would evince more preſumption than ability;' to theſe authors, therefore, the more curious and claſſical reader is referred, and Mr. D. ſtates it to be his intention 'to treat of the Ottoman capital, and to relate what appeared worthy of notice during a reſidence of eighteen months.' The extent and plan of his tour, compriſing about a thouſand miles, are briefly ſketched. P. 1. 'In the following journey from Conſtantinople we ſurveyed the eaſtern coaſt of the ſea of Marmara; and traverſing Anatolia within a ſmall diſtance of Halicarnaſſus, we purſued the Ægean ſhores on our return, viſiting the iſlands of Samos, Chio, Mytelene, and Tenedos, and examining the far-famed, but now deſolate region of the Troad;' the object ſought, 'was accurate information of the preſent ſtate of thoſe ruins which were once the pride of claſſic antiquity, and to inſpect thoſe ſcenes, once dignified by the reſidence of the moſt enlightened people of their day.' Such an object could only have preſented itſelf as worthy of purſuit to a mind already impregnated with claſſic lore, and deeply ſuſceptible of thoſe melancholy yet pleaſurable emotions, which ariſe from contemplating the ruins of departed grandeur, the deſolate and ſolitary monuments of ancient magnificence and forgotten art! It is fortunate, moreover, that to ſuch a mind the object would give ardour to the purſuit, and inſpire that perſeverance, which is neceſſary in eliciting information both from the 'haughty uncommunicative' turk, and the ſordid, the ſubjugated, and the uncandid greek.

What muſt be the impreſſion on a man of feeling, what mortifying reflections muſt intrude themſelves upon him, as he recognizes in the mean and ignominious deſcendant of an ancient grecian ſomething of thoſe noble features, ſomething of that venerable caſt of countenance, which diſtinguiſhed his illuſtrious anceſtor!

P. 6.—'The old men are perpetually reminding us of thoſe fine attitudes and heads which were ſo happily ſtudied in the italian ſchools of painting for ſcriptural ſubjects. The contour of grecian ſtatues, and the profiles on their medals, are ſtill to be ſeen in the faces of their degenerate ſucceſſors; and there is ſometimes even yet a marked reſemblance between thoſe of heroes, which have been tranſmitted to us, and the peaſant, or the mariner. In the iſlands, particularly of Chio, all that ſymmetry of features, and brilliancy of complexion, which inſpired the poets and heroes of old, ſtill flouriſhes in a delightful degree. But beauty in this clime is a very ſhort-lived flower; and, as longevity is as common as in others, we can account for the ſevere ſarcaſms the poets have beſtowed on their faded charms, which, it is certain, ſeldom ſurvive the thirtieth year.'

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A conſiderable portion of this work is employed on the capital of the Ottoman empire; in deſcribing it's baths, it's gardens, it's libraries, it's ſeraglio, it's moſques, &c., and in delineating the manners of it's motley inhabitants. The ſite of Conſtantinople, Mr. D. tells us, forms an unequal triangle reſembling a harp; it's total circumference may be about twelve or fourteen engliſh miles, ſurrounded by walls, and defended on two ſides by the ſea, and the harbour called 'the Golden Horn.' It's inhabitants, including the ſuburbs of Galata, Pera, Tophàna, and Scutari, are about four hundred thouſand; of which number one half are turks, one fourth are greeks, and the remainder jews, armenians, and franks, of all the european nations. Mr. D. informs us in a note, that according to the regiſter of the Stamboul effendiſſy, or mayor of Conſtantinople, there are now 88,185 houſes, and 130 public baths. 'The great wall from the Seven Towers to the harbour is four miles long, with a triple fortification eighteen feet diſtant from each other, ſtudded with lofty towers of every ſhape, embattled upon deep brackets, many of which have inſcriptions of marble or iron, particularizing the builder or date. There are five gates, with ſtone bridges over the foſs, which is twenty-five feet wide, of which Topkapeſſi, the Porta Sancti Romani, though the moſt ruinous, is the moſt remarkable, as that where the turks effected their entrance, and the emperor Conſtantine Paleologus was ſlain.'

Two objects in Conſtantinople have long engaged the curioſity of european nations, the ſeraglio, and the church of Santa Sophia: the inhabitants of the former exceed ſix thouſand, of which about five hundred are women. The extreme point of the promontory, ſaid to have been the entire ſite of Byzantium, was judiciouſly choſen by Mohammed II for his imperial palace: in 1478, he finiſhed an encloſure with lofty walls of four miles circuit, with eight gates and two large courts, beyond which, for ſtrangers, no circumſtance can obtain admittance. Succeſſive ſultans have made great additions, ſo that the whole ſpace, ſays Mr. D., is now irregularly covered with detached ſuites of apartments, baths, moſques, kioſques, gardens, and groves of cypreſs. The treaſures of the ſeraglio, though not, as the turks fondly imagine, beyond the limits of calculation, are certainly very great: as the library is ſituate in it's interiour, it is morally impoſſible for any chriſtian to viſit it. Mr. D. has given an intereſting ſketch of the female economy in the ſeraglio with the preſent arrangement of the harem: although our vulgar notion is erroneous, that among the turks women are conſidered as having no ſouls, we are told, that throughout the empire they are literally 'children of a larger growth, as trifling in their amuſements, as unbounded in their deſires, and as abſolutely at the diſpoſal of others, being conſidered by the men merely as created for the purpoſes of nature, or ſexual luxury.' The number of eunuchs within the walls of the ſeraglio exceeds four hundred. Negroes are the moſt eſteemed, as being more ugly: they are brought from Abyſſinia.

After reading the deſcription of the various imperial moſques which adorn the capital; after contemplating the magnificence of Santa Sophia, dedicated to iſlamiſm by Mohammed II; the profuſe embelliſhments of the moſque of ſultan Ahmet I; and of Suley-

Suleymanie; together with the chaſter edifice of Lalelì and it's more elegant decorations; we cannot but exclaim with the hiſtorian of the roman empire, "yet how dull is the artifice, how inſignificant is the labour, if it be compared with the formation of the vileſt inſect that crawls upon the ſurface of the temple!"

It is not to be forgotten, however, that the ſultans, who have founded moſques, have contributed to the public good by invariably attaching to them academies, with profeſſors, hoſpitals, and khans: to many of them alſo royal libraries are added.

P. 70.—'With the moſt favourable ſituation that can be imagined, if the accommodations and embelliſhment of european capitals were adopted, Conſtantinople, under its ottoman maſters, has fewer conveniences than the worſt of them; and all it can claim is a ſort of gloomy magnificence in the vicinity of the great moſques, or as approached through the widely extended cemeteries. Upon the ſeven hills, its ancient boaſt, are cluſtered an infinity of narrow lanes, ill paved and filthy, as the only ſcavengers are packs of unowned dogs of the wolf breed (for none are domeſticated), and vultures (ak baba of the turks, and called by them Mohammed's bird) which ſail in the air all day, and at night perform this uſeful office. Amongſt ſuch numbers of dogs, many of which periſh from hunger, it is truly ſingular, that canine madneſs is ſcarcely known; but they are ſubject to the plague, when it rages in the city.'

Before we offer a ſketch of the ſociety, manners, and amuſements of the turks, our readers will be pleaſed with ſome ſlight account of the ſultan himſelf: at the death of his father Muſtafa III, in 1775, Selim III was fourteen years old; the turks diſdaining to be governed by a boy, his uncle Abdul-hamid ſucceeded to the throne.

P. 42.—'At his acceſſion Abdul-hamid had reached the age of forty-nine, and during the fifteen years reign of his brother Muſtafa had endured a ſtate impriſonment, which the jealous policy of the ſeraglio had long ordained. As a ſolace of his confinement he cultivated literature and the arts of peace. His diſpoſition, mild and beneficent, induced him to forego the ancient prejudice, and to ſuperintend the education of ſultan Selim, giving him every liberal indulgence. Sultan Muſtafa and ſultan Mahmood, the ſons of Abdul-hamid, and the only remaining heirs of the empire, are both minors. They experience a generous return for their father's kindneſs, and are treated with ſuitable reſpect. Each has his ſeparate ſuite of apartments, and ſixty attendants, amongſt whom are thirty elderly female ſlaves, with an annual revenue of 5000l. ſterling. The good muſulman, who laments the poſſible extinction of the imperial family, is comforted by the aſtrologers, who have publicly declared, that after he has attained to forty years, ſultan Selim will be bleſſed with a numerous progeny.

'His countenance is handſome and impreſſive, and his figure good; he is affable, and poſſeſſes much ſpeculative genius, is not ill-informed of the characters and ſeparate intereſts of his contemporary princes, and has every inclination to reconcile his ſubjects to the ſuperior expediency of european maxims, both in politics and war. But it is dubious if he be capable of that energetic activity, and that perſonal exertion, which are required in an abſolute prince

to

to re-model a people whoſe opinions are not to be changed but by an univerſal revolution.'

An anecdote related of him is not very honourable to his diſpoſition: when he came to the throne he iſſued an edict, that no unlicenſed rayah ſhould appear publicly in yellow ſlippers. At that time, like the renowned Alraſchid, the ſultan Selim uſed to walk the ſtreets in diſguiſe, when meeting an ill-ſtarred jew dreſſed contrary to law, he ordered his head to be inſtantly ſtruck off!

The turkiſh ladies enjoy an occaſional ſaturnalia: the fires at Conſtantinople are dreadfully notorious: after any conflagration has laſted one hour, the ſultan is forced to attend in perſon, and to bring mules with him laden with piaſtres, which he diſtributes with his own hands to the fire-men, who are very inactive before his arrival: the women aſſemble in a groupe near the ſultan, unmercifully load him with the bittereſt reviling, and charge him with the cauſe of their preſent calamities. 'At ſuch rencounters,' ſays Mr. D., 'no crowned head need envy ſultan Selim his ſituation. As this is the only privileged time of conveying the voice of the people to his ears, and as women in Turkey ſay any thing with impunity, it is preſumed that many of the fires are not accidental.'

Murders, excepting among the ſoldiery, are ſeldom heard of: perſonal combat is not practiſed among the turks, or is aſſaſſination in any degree frequent. Connections with women are ſo arranged, as to render interference with each other almoſt impoſſible. Before marriage they are not ſeen by their lovers, and after only by their huſbands and near relatives. There is likewiſe an inviolable point of honour between men reſpecting their harèms, and an avowed libertine would be baniſhed from ſociety. Gaming is prohibited by the mohammedan law.

The amuſements of the turks in the evenings of rammezan, or lent, are various:—P. 82. 'For the graver ſort, moſt coffee-houſes retain a raccontatorè, or profeſſed ſtory teller, who entertains a very attentive audience for many hours. They relate eaſtern tales, or ſarcaſtic anecdotes of the times, and are ſometimes engaged by government to treat on politics, and to reconcile the people to any recent meaſure of the ſultan or viſier. Their manner is very animated, and their recitation accompanied by much geſticulation. They have the fineſſe, when they perceive the audience numerous, and deeply engaged, to defer the ſequel of their ſtory. The nightly illuminations of every minareh in the city, eſpecially thoſe of the imperial moſques, produce a very ſingular and ſplendid effect. Within each of theſe, the vaſt concaves of the domes are lighted up by ſome hundred lamps of coloured glaſs; and externally cords are thrown acroſs from one minareh to another, and the lamps fantaſtically diſpoſed in letters and figures. I was not more agreeably ſurpriſed by any thing I ſaw in Conſtantinople, than the whole appearance of the firſt night in rammezan.'

We have already ſtated, in Mr. D.'s own words, the general plan of his tour: many of the places which he viſited were in ancient times the ſeats of ſcience and of art, and many of them are indebted for their celebrity to arms. We have accompanied him with pleaſure, and derived information from his remarks: but to enumerate the

the various cities, the ruins of which he inveſtigated, and the antiquities of which he explored, would be very unintereſting, unleſs the limits of our Review had allowed us to annex thoſe hiſtorical ſketches, which our author has given in ſo conciſe and elegant a manner, as to fix, without fatiguing the attention.

We may probably be allowed, however, to wander with our readers for a few moments among ſome of the principal iſlands in the Ægean:- from Samos, the reputed birth-place of Pythagoras, our traveller proceeds to the iſland of Teios; the temple of Bacchus, of which boaſted work Hermogenes was the architect, is now overgrown with olive and vine trees thickly planted; amidſt the pile are ſections of ionic pillars fluted, and a capital with the volutes and ivy leaf of ſuperior delicacy. The proofs of it's magnificence and extent are numerous; the ploughed fields are covered with pieces of marble, jaſper, fine pottery, and brick. Well might it excite ſurpriſe and diſappointment, that in a place once ſacred to Bacchus, in the country of Anacreon, and where grapes, the natural produce of the ſoil, were hanging in the greateſt profuſion; not a glaſs of wine could be obtained at dinner! The prohibition impoſed by Mohammed explained the mortifying circumſtance. More fortunate at Chio, our traveller taſted ſome, which did not diſparage it's ancient fame: by way of excellence it is called the wine of Homer, whoſe nativity is claimed with an honourable eagerneſs by the iſlanders. Chio retains more of it's former proſperity than any iſland in the Ægean ſea; commerce flouriſhes; the ſoil is fertile; the climate genial; and in thoſe parts of the iſland, in which cultivation is practicable, almoſt the whole may be ſaid to be a garden. The greeks, both in number and affluence, are the principal inhabitants; their population is computed to exceed 150,000, whilſt that of the turks does not complete a fortieth part; this numerous population is maintained by manufactories of ſilk and cotton ſtuffs: the females of this iſland are particularly beautiful: the girls have moſt brilliant complexions, with features regular and delicate; but one ſtyle of countenance prevails.

P. 283.—' The ringlets, which are ſo elegantly diſpoſed round the ſweet countenances of theſe fair chiotes, are ſuch as Milton deſcribes by " hyacinthine locks," criſped and curled like the bloſſoms of that flower. No dreſs more unbecoming than that which envelopes their ſhapes, could have been imagined; but their faces make ample amends, with eyes varying with infinite expreſſion from ſoftneſs to vivacity. All the arts of ancient Greece have declined in an extreme proportion, nor ſhould we wonder, that if the ſuperiority of beauty be unimpaired, the art of adorning the perſon be almoſt loſt. Yet the air of the veil, the ceinture, and the ſandals, afford us occaſionally ſome ſlight glimpſe of that exquiſite grace which pervades the drapery of ancient ſculpture.

' Even, in the turkiſh women, an air of greater freedom than of thoſe in the capital may be obſerved. The face is not ſo cloſely enveloped in a màhramah, which diſcovers the eyes only, but gracefully obſcured by a flowing veil.'

Of all the towns which our travellers viſited of equal fame and flouriſhing ſtate, they found none ſo entirely deſtitute of ancient evidence as Mytelene: this iſland was the firſt in the Archipelago, of

which the turks gained ſecure poſſeſſion: and their manners and cuſtoms, ſays Mr. D., have pervaded the whole maſs of inhabitants. If this iſland obtained celebrity by giving birth to Alcæus and Sappho, Pittacus and Terpander, in more modern times it acquired equal notoriety as the birth-place of the deſperate corſair Barbaroſſa.

Our travellers arrive at Alexandria Troas, and Mr. D. deſcribes as well it's ancient hiſtory as it's preſent ſtate. Not merely the locality but the very exiſtence of Troy has long been the ſubject of diſpute; in a late work, the learned Mr. Bryant has plainly ſtated it to be his opinion, that the poems of Homer are mere fables: "I am perſuaded," ſays he, "that no ſuch war, as has been repreſented, was carried on againſt Troy, nor do I believe, that the phrygian city ever exiſted."

In a ſtill later work, his "Diſſertation concerning the war of Troy," &c., this opinion is moſt ſtrenuouſly ſupported. 'To inſiſt that the poem ſhould be hiſtorically exact,' ſays Mr. D., whoſe opinion on the ſubject is not to be ſlighted, p. 341, 'would be to make no allowance for the liberty of a poet. That it is topographically ſo, an examination of the preſent face of the country will amply prove, and it is equally an object of claſſical curioſity, whether Troy exiſted or not, ſince the fable, if ſuch it muſt be, is invariably accommodated to the ſcene of action.

'With reſpectful deference to a name ſo long eſteemed in the republic of letters as that of Mr. Bryant, I humbly but totally diſſent from his ſcepticiſm on this ſubject. For it is not to the taſteleſs ſyſtem of Le Boſſu in his Eſſay on the Epic, who has preceded Mr. Bryant in a ſimilar hypotheſis, that the opinion of many ages, and the ſatisfaction of ocular inſpection, can be readily conceded. To eſtabliſh a conviction on the mind, that the tale of Troy divine is a mere invention, may require yet more than the moſt laborious learning can lend to conjecture, and could it avail, we might loſe in the pleaſures of the imagination, as much as we ſhould gain by truth, could his arguments eſtabliſh it, and lament with the enthuſiaſt in Horace,

—demptus per vim mentis gratiſſimus error.'

After his return to Conſtantinople, Mr. D. preſents us with a conciſe and ſatisfactory view of the greek church, it's doctrines, ceremonies, diſcipline, &c.: nor does the armenian church eſcape his attention; it's faſts, it's feſtivals; it's monaſtics and ſeculars. Before Mr. D. concludes his work he offers a very unfavourable account of turkiſh literature: at firſt we felt ſome diſappointment, that our author had treated this ſubject in a meagre and deſultory manner, but the taſk muſt have been moſt ungrateful! 'The veneration with which we ſurvey Greece as the nurſe of ſcience and of every liberal art, encreaſes the regret that the ſame region ſhould now be overſpread by barbariſm and ſuperſtition, and that ignorance ſhould have uſurped the favored abode of philoſophy and elegance.'

It has appeared from the paſſages which we have extracted, that, although the primary object of Mr. D.'s purſuit was the accurate examination of thoſe venerable wrecks which remain of ancient art, he has not been inattentive to the manners and cuſtoms,

which prevail among the modern inhabitants of the countries he viſited.

After this favourable account of Mr. D.'s work, it would be injuſtice to our readers not to point out one ſtriking errour, as a proof of the author's ſkill in antiquities, and acquaintance with the latin language. In p. 165, to evince the magnificence of Nicæa, he ſays, 'We learn from Pliny, that a theatre, or gymnaſium, was begun at the expence of *one hundred ſeſterces*, that it was incomplete, and would require the emperor's aſſiſtance to finiſh it.' What idea muſt Mr. D. have of the value of a ſeſterce? To ſhow, however, that he did not exaggerate the *enormous* coſt, happily he gives the latin in a note, where we find "*ſeſtertium amplius centies.*"

Mr. D. announces an intention of publiſhing a 'Hiſtory of the Ottoman Empire, from 1453 to 1788, as a Continuation of Gibbon.' In the preſent work he evidently attempts to imitate the ſtyle of the hiſtorian of the fall of the roman empire, but we ſhall be greatly ſurprized, if ever he ſhare his fame. L. L.

ART. III. *La Pérouſe's Voyage round the World.*

[*Continued from p.* 230.]

WE have already obſerved, that the preſent work may be divided into two parts: the firſt containing preparations and inſtructions for performing the voyage; ſecondly, the proceedings and diſcoveries made in the proſecution of it. Of the preparations and inſtructions we have given a pretty full account in our laſt number: but it is under the ſame head that we ought with ſtrict propriety to take notice of narratives of two voyages, performed by the commander of a ſpaniſh frigate, don Maurelle, 'for making farther Diſcoveries on the Weſt Coaſt of America, in 1729.' The ſpaniſh originals of this narrative, which is very intereſting, and muſt or might have been of much utility to la Pérouſe, was ſent home by that navigator, with other papers, to government.

The ſieur de la P., with the two frigates under his command, ſailed from Breſt road on the 1ſt of auguſt, 1785. Mr. de Lamanon, charged with the department of geology, or the natural hiſtory of the earth and it's atmoſphere, in the run to Madeira, where they arrived on the 13th, 'obſerved the luminous particles in the ſea waters, which [in the opinion of la Pérouſe] proceed from the diſſolution of marine bodies. If this light were produced by inſects, as many natural philoſophers affirm, they would not be ſpread with ſuch profuſion from the pole to the equator, but would affect particular climates.' We take notice of this obſervation, as an inſtance of the alacrity, with which Mr. la Pérouſe and his ſcientific companions ſet themſelves to the contemplation of every ſtriking object, that came in their way. They were moſt hoſpitably received and entertained at Madeira, chiefly by the engliſh; paſſed on to Teneriffe; thence to Trinidada; and thence to the iſland of St. Catharine on the coaſt of Braſil. In the courſe of the voyage thither, as during the whole of it's proſecution, la Pérouſe loſt no proper opportunity of making obſervations both nautical and aſtronomical. Leaving St. Catharine's, which is deſcribed, they proceed ſouthward, double Cape Horn, and arrive in the bay and city of Conception, on the coaſt of Chili. Of Cape Horn he ſays, 'I doubled Cape Horn with much greater eaſe than I had dared to hope; and I am now convinced,

convinced, that this navigation is like that of all high latitudes. The difficulties we expect to meet with, are the effect of an ancient prejudice, which will in time be laid aſide, and which the reading of admiral Anſon's voyage has not a little contributed to keep alive in the minds of ſeamen.'

It is not unnatural for voyagers, as well as travellers, to deſcribe the dangers and difficulties they have ſurmounted in ſtrong colours; but without ſetting any thing down to the account of this diſpoſition, we may obſerve, that dangers are more apprehended, and difficulties ſeem more arduous, in unexplored regions, as every unknown object is apt to excite terrour in the dark.

The reader of voyages and travels will here compare the reports and belief of the difficulties of navigating the ſeas at the ſouthern point of America, with the opinions formerly entertained of the Cape of Good Hope. Bartholomew Diaz, who firſt doubled this celebrated Cape, in the reign, and under the auſpices of John II, king of Portugal, on his return to Liſbon, expatiated much on the ſtorms he had encountered in thoſe ſeas, and the danger and difficulty that would ever attend all ſimilar attempts. Diaz gave it the name of Cabo Tormentoſo: but John, with equal adroitneſs and propriety, gave it the name, which it has retained, of Cabo del Buena Eſperanza. It is comfortable to reflect, that the intercourſe between different regions of the earth becomes more and more ſmooth and eaſy by ſea as well as land.

We are agreeably entertained with a deſcription of the town of Conception, the ſeat of a biſhop, and the diſtrict around it. The biſhopric of 'Conception confines [borders] on that of St. Jago, the capital of Chili, where the governor-general reſides. It is ſkirted on the eaſtward by the Cordilleras, and extends ſouthward as far as the ſtraits of Magellan; but its true limits are the river of Biobio, at a quarter of a league's diſtance from the city. All the country ſouthward of that river belongs to the indians, except the iſland of Chiloe, and a ſmall diſtrict round Baldivia. It is improper to give to thoſe people the name of ſubjects of the king of Spain, with whom they are almoſt always at war. The functions of the ſpaniſh commandant are conſequently of the greateſt importance. He commands both the regular troops and the militia, which gives him great authority over the citizens, who, in their civil concerns, are governed by a corrigidor. He is beſides charged excluſively with the defence of the country, and obliged to fight, and to negotiate inceſſantly. A new adminiſtration is about to ſucceed the old one. It will differ little from that of our colonies, as the authority is to be divided between the commandant and intendant. But it muſt be obſerved, that there is no ſupreme court in the ſpaniſh colonies, thoſe who are inveſted with the king's authority preſiding alſo as judges in civil cauſes, with a few civilians to aſſiſt them. It is eaſy to perceive, that as juſtice is not adminiſtered by judges equal in dignity, the opinion of the preſident muſt almoſt always bias that of the inferior members. The conſequence is, that juſtice is in fact adminiſtered by a ſingle perſon, which muſt be attended with great inconvenience, unleſs we ſuppoſe that perſon void of all prejudice, free from all paſſions, and poſſeſſed of the moſt enlightened underſtanding.

'There is not in the univerſe a ſoil more fertile than this part of Chili, corn yields ſixty for one, the vineyards are equally productive; and the plains are covered with innumerable flocks, which multiply beyond all conception, though abandoned entirely to themſelves. All the inhabitants have to do is to ſet up fences round their reſpective poſſeſſions, and to leave the oxen, horſes, mules, and ſheep, in the incloſures. The common price of a fat ox is eight dollars, and that of a ſheep a quarter of a dollar, but there are no purchaſers; and the natives are accuſtomed every year to kill a great number of oxen, of which the hides and tallow are alone preſerved, and ſent to Cima. Some meat is alſo cured in the indian manner for the conſumption of the ſmall coaſting veſſels in the South Sea.'

Our voyagers, in april 1786, proceed to Eaſter iſland, ſituate in the 27th degree of ſouth latitude, and about the 112th of weſt longitude. The inhabitants of this iſland appeared leſs miſerable to la Pérouſe, than they had done to captain Cook and Mr. Foſter. Theſe voyagers, as the french navigator obſerves, 'arrived here, after a long and diſagreeable voyage: in want of every thing and ſick of the ſcurvy; they found neither water, wood, nor hogs; a few fowls, bananas, and potatoes, are but feeble reſources in theſe circumſtances. Their narratives bear teſtimony to their ſituation. Ours was infinitely better: the crews enjoyed the moſt perfect health: we had taken in at Chili every thing that was neceſſary for many months; and we only deſired of theſe people the privilege of doing them good: we brought them goats, ſheep, and hogs; we had ſeeds of orange, lemon, and cotton trees, of maize, and in ſhort of every ſpecies of plants which was likely to flouriſh in the iſland.' Obſervations are made upon the manners and the arts of the natives, nearly reſembling thoſe of the natives of the Sandwich iſlands, to which our voyagers bend their courſe; and thence to the american coaſt, where they enter into a very deep bay, which is deſcribed, and to which la Pérouſe gave the name of Port des Français, ſituate between the 58th and 59th of north latitude. This voyage from the Sandwich iſlands to Port des Français was performed in part of the months of june and july 1786. The ſoil, vegetable, mineral, and animal productions of the country, as well as it's general configuration and aſpect, are deſcribed. The face of the country is bleak and horrid: and the manners of the inhabitants, unlike thoſe of the iſlands in the S. Sea, ſelfiſh, rude, inhoſpitable, and cruel. There is not a truth more certain, or more intereſting, than what all intelligent travellers and voyagers are agreed on, that the moral character is very much influenced by climate: mild and benignant in a mild and bounteous, but ferocious and intractable in a rude climate

Vol. II, p. 134. 'Sometimes, immediately after loading them with preſents, I pretended to have a deſire for certain little articles of trifling value, which belonged to theſe indians; but this was a trial of their generoſity, which I always made in vain.—I will however admit, if it be deſired, that it is impoſſible for a ſociety to exiſt without ſome virtues; but I am obliged to confeſs, that I had not the penetration to perceive them; quarrelling continually among themſelves, indifferent

ferent to their children, and abſolute tyrants over their women, whom they inceſſantly condemn to the moſt painful labours. I have obſerved nothing among thoſe people which will permit me to ſoften the colouring of this picture'. Theſe indians are alſo diſtinguiſhed by extreme filth and naſtineſs: ſo are the kamtſchadales, and ſiberians: and ſo, as is aſſerted in a recent publication by the rev. Mr. Macgregor Buchanan, are the inhabitants of the hebrides.

In auguſt 1786, la Pérouſe, with his companions, departed from Port des Français, made various inquiries and obſervations as he paſſed along the coaſt of California, or through iſlands, and in ſeptember arrived in the bay of Monterey, the reſidence of the governor of the Californias; the 'extent of whoſe government is more than eight hundred leagues in circumference; but his real ſubjects conſiſt only of two hundred and eighty-two cavalry, whoſe duty it is to garriſon five ſmall forts, and to furniſh detachments of four or five men to each of the twenty-five miſſions, or pariſhes eſtabliſhed in old or new California: ſo ſmall are the means which are adequate to the reſtraining about fifty thouſand wandering indians in this vaſt part of America, among whom nearly ten thouſand have embraced chriſtianity.'

P. 213. 'The monks, by their anſwers to our different queſtions, gave us the moſt complete information reſpecting the government of this ſpecies of religious community; for no other name can be given to the legiſlation they have eſtabliſhed: they are ſuperiors both in ſpiritual and temporal affairs: the products of the land are entirely entruſted to their adminiſtration. There are ſeven hours allotted to labour in the day, two hours to prayers, and four or five on ſundays and feſtivals, which are altogether dedicated to reſt and divine worſhip. Corporal puniſhments are inflicted on the indians of both ſexes who neglect pious exerciſes, and ſeveral ſins, the puniſhment of which in Europe is reſerved only to divine juſtice, are puniſhed with chains or the ſtocks. In a word, to make an end of the compariſon with religious communities, from the moment a new convert is baptized, he becomes the ſame as if he had pronounced eternal vows; if he make his eſcape for the purpoſe of returning to his relations in the independant villages, they cauſe him to be ſummoned to return three times; and if he refuſe, they claim the authority of the governor, who ſends ſoldiers to force him away from the midſt of his family, and conduct him to the miſſions, where he is condemned to receive a certain number of laſhes with the whip. Theſe people are ſo deſtitute of courage, that they never oppoſe the leaſt reſiſtance to three or four ſoldiers, who, in reſpect to them, ſo groſsly violate the rights of man; and this cuſtom, againſt which reaſon ſo forcibly objects, is maintained, becauſe theologians have decided, that baptiſm could not in conſcience be adminiſtered to men ſo fickle, unleſs the government, in ſome meaſure, became reſponſible for their perſeverance, by officiating as their godfather.' The ſtrictures of Pérouſe on the diſcipline of the church may perhaps appear to ſome to be too ſevere, as it undoubtedly appears to have been neceſſary, to reſtrain them within the circle of civilization and religion. And it alſo ſufficiently appears, that the miſſionaries exerciſed their influence and authority with a ſincere view to the good

good of their indian diſciples. A religious and kind of patriarchal community on a grand ſcale, it is well known, in Paraguay did great honour to the jeſuits, and to the chriſtian religion.

Mr. de la P. and his aſſociates ſhowed a laudable as well as natural curioſity in wiſhing to be preſent at the diſtributions, which took place at every meal. P. 215. 'As every day, with this ſpecies of religious, reſembled the preceding one, by giving the hiſtory of one of theſe days, the reader will be in poſſeſſion of the whole year's proceedings.

'The indians as well as the miſſionaries riſe with the ſun, and to prayers and maſs, which laſt an hour, and during this time there is cooked in the middle of the ſquare, in three large kettles, barley meal, the grain of which has been roaſted previous to being ground; this ſpecies of food, which the indians call atole, and of which they are very fond, is ſeaſoned neither with ſalt nor butter, and to us would prove a very inſipid meſs.

'Every cabin ſends to take the portion for all its inhabitants in a veſſel made of bark; there is not the leaſt confuſion or diſorder, and when the coppers are empty, they diſtribute that which ſticks to the bottom to the children who have beſt retained their catechiſm.

'This meal continues three quarters of an hour, after which they all return to their labours; ſome go to plough the earth with oxen, others to dig the garden; in a word, every one is employed in different domeſtic occupations, and always under the ſuperintendance of one or two of the religious.

'The women are charged with little elſe but the care of their houſewifery, their children, and roaſting and grinding the ſeveral grains: this laſt operation is very long and laborious, becauſe they have no other means of doing it but by cruſhing the grain in pieces with a cylinder upon a ſtone. Mr. de Langle being a witneſs of this operation, made the miſſionaries a preſent of his mill, and a greater ſervice could not have been rendered them, as by theſe means four women would in a day perform the work of a hundred, and time enough will remain to ſpin the wool of their ſheep, and to manufacture coarſe ſtuffs. But at preſent the religious, more occupied with the intereſts of heaven than temporal welfare, have greatly neglected the introduction of the commmon arts: they are themſelves ſo auſtere, that they have no chimney to their chambers, though winter is frequently very ſevere there; and even the greateſt anchorets have never led a more edifying life.

'At noon the dinner was announced by the bell; the indians quitted their work, and ſent to fetch their rations in the ſame veſſels as at breakfaſt; but this ſecond meſs was thicker than the firſt; there was mixed in it corn and maize, and peaſe and beans; the indians name it pouſſole. They return again to their labour, from two o'clock till four or five; afterwards they attend evening prayers, which continue near an hour, and are followed by a new ration of atole like that at breakfaſt. Theſe three diſtributions are ſufficient for the ſubſiſtence of the far greater number of indians, and this very economical ſoup might perhaps be very profitably adopted in our years of

ſcarcity; ſome ſeaſoning would certainly be neceſſary to be added to it, their whole knowledge of cookery conſiſting in being able to roaſt the grain before it is reduced into meal. As the indian women have no veſſels of earth or metal for this operation, they perform it in large baſkets made of bark, over a little lighted charcoal; they turn theſe veſſels with ſo much rapidity and addreſs, that they effect the ſwelling and burſting of the grain without burning the baſket, though it is made of very combuſtible materials; and we can teſtify, that the beſt roaſted coffee does not nearly equal the exactneſs with which theſe women prepare their corn. It is diſtributed to them every morning, and the ſmalleſt diſhoneſty when they give it out is puniſhed by whipping, but it is very ſeldom indeed they are expoſed to it. Theſe puniſhments are adjudged by indian magiſtrates, called caciques; there are in every miſſion three of them, choſen by the people from amongſt thoſe whom the miſſionaries have not excluded; but to give a juſt idea of this magiſtracy, we ſhall ſay, that theſe caciques are like the governors of a plantation, paſſive beings, blind executors of the will of their ſuperiors, and that their principal functions conſiſt in ſerving as beadles in the church, and there maintaining order, and an air of contemplation. The women are never whipped in public, but in an encloſed, and ſomewhat diſtant place, leſt perhaps their cries might inſpire too lively a compaſſion, which might ſtimulate the men to revolt: theſe laſt, on the contrary, are expoſed to the view of all their fellow citizens, that their puniſhment may ſerve as an example; in general they aſk pardon, in which caſe the executioner leſſens the force of his laſhes, but the number of them is never receded from.

'The rewards are particular ſmall diſtributions of grain, of which they make little thin cakes, baked on burning coals; and on the great feſtivals the ration is in beef; many of them eat it raw, eſpecially the fat, which they eſteem equal to the beſt butter or cheeſe. They ſkin all animals with the greateſt addreſs, and when they are fat, they make, like the ravens, a croaking of pleaſure, devouring at the ſame time the moſt delicate parts with their eyes.'

A community, living thus with primæval ſimplicity, in a patriarchal manner, and protected from many vices by having few wants, and theſe provided for by the public authority, is an intereſting and pleaſing ſpectacle.

[*To be continued.*]

PHILOLOGY.

ART. IV. *The Saxon and Engliſh Languages reciprocally illuſtrative of each other; The impracticability of acquiring an accurate Knowledge of Saxon Literature, through the Medium of Latin Phraſeology, exemplified in the Errors of Hickes, Wilkins, Gibſon, and other Scholars, and a new Mode ſuggeſted of radically ſtudying the Saxon and Engliſh Languages*, by Samuel Henſhall, M. A. Fellow of Brazen-Noſe College Oxford, and Author of Specimens and Parts of the Hiſtory of

of South Britain. 4to. 60 pages. London. 1798. Printed for the Author.

We wiſh not to exerciſe ſeverity againſt any well meant eſſay in philology; but when an author of unacknowledged attainments ſtarts up, to reprehend, with indecorum, the laborious efforts of learned men, we cannot but notice him with cenſure. Mr. H. appears to us not miſtaken in his notion of 'the impracticability of acquiring an accurate knowledge of ſaxon literature through the medium of latin phraſeology;' but this evidently reſpects the grammars of the language, which have been too frequently conſtructed upon latin principles. As it cannot be ſuppoſed, that any writer, who interprets the ſaxon through the medium of the latin tongue, can give an idiomatic tranſlation, the particular caſt of the one language muſt naturally be concealed by the idiom of the other. And we cannot but think, that a book of ſuch general demand as the Theſaurus of Dr. Hickes, among all the northern nations, was rightly rendered by an intermediate language common to them all.

It would be ſuperfluous to diſſect this boaſting pamphlet with critical rigour.—Arrogance condemns itſelf.

P. 1.—'To aſſert that no correct ideas can be collected from the laborious exertions of a Hickes, a Gibſon, or a Wilkins; to affirm that their latin interpretations are of little authority, unintelligible, and deluſory; argues certainly a daring challenger, or a champion conſcious of the merits of his cauſe, and therefore not eaſily intimidated.

'The preſent inveſtigator relies little on his own knowledge, but is confident in the errours of his opponents.'

In P. 4, we have an extract from a ſaxon manuſcript, tranſcribed in the Theſaurus of Hickes (Differt. Epiſt. p. 2.), with the '*Verſio Hickeſiana*,' and on the oppoſite page, the Saxon is printed in roman characters, with an engliſh '*radical tranſlation*,' by the editor, in italics. Which brings to our recollection the caſe of Dryden's tranſlation of Virgil; it 'was cenſured,' we are told, 'by Milbourne, a clergyman, ſtyled by Pope the *faireſt of critics*, becauſe he exhibited his own verſion to be compared with that which he condemned.'

The firſt two lines of Mr. H.'s tranſlation, with the ſaxon in roman characters, we have here extracted:

'*Here ſettleth on this writ that one Shiremote ſat at*
'Her ſwutelath on thiſſum gewrite, that an ſcir-gemot ſæt æt
Ælnoth's-ſtone being Cnutes day king. There ſatten Æthelſtan Biſhop.
Ægelnoths-ſtane be Cnutes dæge cinges. Thær ſæton Æthelſtan B.

The very ſecond word, ſwutelaþ, which ſignifies *ſheweth* or *declareth*, is here tranſlated ſo as to miſlead the learner, and make him think that our preſent *ſettleth* is a corruption of the word before him. The accurate Hickes has explained it by *oſtenditur*.—In the next line we have be Cnutes dæge cinges. In be which ſignifies *in*, by the ſame obſtinate diſtortion of common ſenſe, Mr. H. finds our modern engliſh *being*. And the remaining words Cnutes dæge cinges, are tranſlated *Cnutes day king*. To any perſon, who has read three pages of the ſaxon grammar, the inaccuracy of this tranſlation muſt be ſtriking. Cnutes

Cnutes

Cnutes and ᵹeᵹeᵹ are both of the genitive case; we must therefore render it *in the day of king Cnute. Canuto regnante*, Hickes. *In die Canuti, Lye.* In the same line we have þer ſaton '*there satten*,' which, without losing one iota of it's force, might have been expressed in good english. At line fifteen, ða com ᵹeᵹanᵹde to þam ᵹemote is translated 'Then came *fore-hand* to that mote.' The derivation of ᵹeᵹanᵹde from the verb ᵹaᵹan *to fare* or *travel* is obvious, and still more so our present word way-*faring*. On ᵹemote is this note, 'the saxon *ge* prefixed, is almost constantly to be left out in modern english.' This evidently regards his own translations, or why is it not said, that ᵹe was afterwards, in many cases, softened into ȝ as in *yclepede*: but is now generally disused.

P. 7. L. 1. and ᵹeᵹeᵹan is translated '*ante-swear*,' and by way of farther explanation is this note, '*ante-swear*—the latin *ante* against.' Need we tell Mr. H., that the greek αντι was the word he alluded to; and that at p. 45, he has translated andᵹeᵹan without assistance from either greek or latin tongues? Let Mr. H. compare the note we have copied with the very title of his book.—Farther we need not go; as the inaccuracies of grammar and etymology are innumerable.

The extracts from Dr. Hickes, which we have examined, have the following tail-piece:—

P. 15.—'Since the learning of Hickes has hitherto never been questioned, since Dr. White Kennet states his "instructions of grammar-to be methodical and accurate," since bishop Nicholson reports his "book as discovering an accuracy in this language beyond the attainments of any that had gone before him in this study;" since Gibson, Smith, and Thwaites, have extolled his ability in England, Grævius, Wormius, and the Leipsic Acta Eruditorum on the Continent, we judge it expedient to give other specimens of his inaccurate versions, and unfaithful translations.'

After this comes an extract from Dr. Hickes's grammar of about a dozen lines, followed by another flourish of turgid, empty declamation. On which we can only observe, that, had Mr. H. accomplished his design to it's utmost latitude, such a triumph would have been indecent: what it is at present our readers must judge.

Beside Dr. Hickes, other industrious and learned saxonists, Gibson, Wilkins, Somner, Wheloe, and Manning, are all bespattered by his pen, in a similar manner; and malevolent notes are appropriated to Mr. Horne Tooke, and a noble earl.— J.

The above strictures were communicated to us by a friend. They are severe, but just. Mr. H. is, certainly, but a poor proficient in saxon literature: beside the examples adduced by our correspondent J., we deem it proper to point out a few more intolerable mistakes. In his extract from the patent roll of Henry III, he divides the following words: '*to alle hiſe holde, ilærde and ilewde*, in this manner, *to alle hiſe hol theilaerde and ilewde*, and renders *to all his whole servants of the Lord, and allowed*; with this curious annotation: '*theilaerde* from *theow* servants; hence modern *thief*; and the provincialism, *do you* THOU *me:* i. e. call me a *slave:* in Lancashire dialect still *theow.*' On the other word *ilewde* he comments thus: '*allowed, lawful,*

lawful, pacem regis habentes, in the law; neither villains, nor thieves—hence alloy, or allay, lawful money with a proportion of lawful baſe metal.' Strange gloſſariſm all this! The ſcholar, who has but taſted of ſaxon grammar, will clearly perceive, that Somner's latin verſion, which our author would correct, is perfectly juſt: *ilearde* is the clergy, and *ilewde* the laity. The germans and other teutonic nations retain the latter word at this day.

Again, in the ſame deed, he tranſlates *witen ge alle*, 'ween ye all.' Why not 'wit ye all?'

Again, *we willen and unnen*, he renders 'we will and wull.' But what is *wull?* It is, ſays Mr. H., a common expreſſion in Lancaſhire, *I will and wull*; and adds, 'we have little doubt that *our* interpretation is right. Lye is ſubject to this errour.' To what errour? Why, tranſlating *unnen* by *concedere!* yet this, in our opinion, is the only verſion it can bear; and the ſaxon term is moſt probably the root of our *own*, in the ſenſe of *granting, conceding*, &c.

Again, *ure raedeſmen*—'our read-men [ſays Mr. H.], i. e. men of letters, reading, wittens, or wiſe men.' He might have *read* and learned better from the metrical pſalms. *Raedeſmen* ſignifies *counſellors*, as Somner has well rendered it.

Our author ſometimes means to be pleaſant at the expenſe of former tranſlators. An example occurs p. 16. The very learned Hickes had rendered *thurh that tryw, and thurh tha rode, per ligneam illam crucem.* This Mr. H. is pleaſed to call 'a *wooden* tranſlation indeed.' Well, what is *that tryw* in his own tranſlation? *that true one! Truly*, this is worſe than a *wooden* tranſlation. Is he ignorant, that *the tree* was a common appellation of the croſs of Chriſt?

We will give one ſpecimen more, in which Mr. H. acts the part of both philologiſt and theologian:—'We will [ſays he, p. 49] make an extract from the goſpel of St. John, to manifeſt the ſound divinity in the verſion edited by Junius;' and then gives us his modern verſion thus:—'In forming was worth, and the worth was midſt God, and God was the worth. That was in forming midſt God. All things were wrought through him; and not one thing not was wrought be-out him, that wrought was. In him was life, and that life was man's light.' This is the text, hear now the critical commentator:—'There never was an hereſiarch, that *diſplays* not his want of common ſenſe and judgment, when he *attempts* to pervert the doctrine contained in theſe ſimple and ſublime verſes, whether Arius, Crellius, or Gilbert Wakefield. The tranſlation of the fourth verſe by the laſt, in his lately edited engliſh Teſtament, ſurpaſſes, if poſſible, in abſurdity, the whimſies of all his predeceſſors: *what was made had life in it, and this life was the light of man.* That is, what was itſelf created, was the cauſe of creation to all created beings: *all things were wrought through him.* But as controverſial divinity is not our immediate ſubject, we ſhall ceaſe farther comment.' *Bene facis, vir bone; vade, et noli amplius peccare.* E.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

Art. v. *A Journal of Natural Philoſophy, Chemiſtry, and the Arts: illuſtrated with Engravings.* By William Nicholſon. Vol. I. 4to.

4to. 628 pages, and 25 plates. Price 1 l. 13 s. 6 d. in boards. Robinsons. 1797.

We have now to congratulate the philosophical reader on the appearance of the first volume of a Journal of Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and the Arts, in this country. Publications of this kind have long been in circulation on the continent; but no well-directed attempt of the sort, before the present, so far as we recollect, has been made in this kingdom; we, therefore, feel considerable obligation to the able editor and compiler for bringing forward so useful a plan; and though, from it's nature and extent, it must be laborious and difficult in the execution, we little doubt, but that, under the judicious direction of Mr. N., it will tend to enlarge the bounds of the different sciences.

In the preface we are told, p. 1,—that 'Whatever the activity of men of science or of art may bring forward, of invention or improvement, in any country or nation, within the possibility of being procured, by means as respectable as the motives that call for them, shall appear in this journal; either in the form of short notices, or the full descriptions of their respective authors, or the more ample report deduced from actual visitation and enquiry. The relative magnitude of each object will establish the rule from which either of these modes will be adopted. Arrangements have already been made, channels of communication opened, and other correspondences are in prospect, which must increase, in value and extent, proportionate to the importance and curiosity of the subjects to be displayed in this work, and the impartiality and care with which they shall be treated.'

On the nature of the matter, and the manner of it's selection, we have also information, which it may be requisite to lay before the reader.

Pref. p. 1.—'The leading character on which the selection of objects will be grounded is utility; and next to this, novelty and originality. The author's researches and collections, and those of his friends, will afford a considerable portion of new and curious matter, sufficient to render the work interesting, even to that extreme few, who are so fortunate as to have access to all the expanded sources of philosophical intelligence. But in the department of perfectly original matter, much of prudence is required to be exercised, in order that the claim of novelty may not operate to the exclusion of much more valuable and important subjects. It is certain that, if every article in a journal of science were to be professedly original, it would be a work of comparatively much less value to philosophers and the public. Such a plan would in a great measure defeat the attempt to convey the best discoveries of our cotemporaries in the most authentic manner, namely, in their own words. And when we reflect on the very limited circulation of academical transactions, from their price, their number, their extent, distance of publication, difference of language, labour of perusal, and the efforts of mental abridgment, it is also certain that, from one or other of these causes, even the best memoirs they con-

tain

tain muſt continue unknown to a very large claſs of men of ſcience. Under the impreſſion of theſe truths, while no exertions will be ſpared to obtain immediate original information, concerning any object preſented to the world in this collection, the aim at originality muſt nevertheleſs be ſubordinate to the leſs eaſy but more eſſential requiſites of public utility and intereſting reſearch. Whenever, in the progreſs of inveſtigation, diſcoveries thus buried from the knowledge of the world, ſhall preſent themſelves, the rational plan of a public journal will require them to be brought forward, though years may have elapſed ſince their firſt publication. It would be eaſy to exhibit a numerous catalogue of errors retained in the works of authors of the firſt eminence, from the want of ſuch general communication.'

In the execution of this difficult and very extended plan, we diſcover no want of accuracy or fidelity, which are principal requiſites for the ſucceſsful management of the undertaking. This volume, beſide a large portion of original matter, contains the tranſlations of many intereſting publications, yet little known in this country, and reports and abridgments of ſeveral bulky papers, ſcattered through the collections of different academies.

It would be an equally arduous and unneceſſary taſk to examine all the extracts, and accounts of papers and memoirs, that are here preſented to our notice, as many of them have already appeared under other forms; we ſhall, therefore, chiefly confine our remarks to the original parts of the journal, though other parts may not be leſs uſeful, or leſs intereſting to many claſſes of readers.

The obſervations and experiments of Mr. N., on the 'remarkable effects of the inflexion of light, paſſing through wire cloth,' are highly curious, and have perhaps enabled the philoſopher to proceed a ſtep or two in this difficult inquiry; there are ſtill, however, ſome circumſtances, that remain unexplained. After correctly ſtating what has been done in America, by two active inquirers on this ſubject, Mr. N. relates his own experiments, and the concluſions drawn from them. They are theſe:

P. 14.—On 'looking,' ſays he, 'at a ſtreet lamp through a piece of muſlin containing one hundred threads in the inch. Inſtead of one ſpot of light, there appeared nine; four of which occupied the corners of a ſquare, one the centre, and four others the middle points, in a right line between the corners. Upon examining them with an achromatic perſpective magnifying fourteen times, I ſaw that the ſpots were true images of the flame of the lamp, the central one being perfect, all the others coloured, with the red outermoſt, and the corner lights leaſt luminous and diſtinct. It made no difference in the appearance, whether the cloth was applied cloſe to the object-glaſs, or at any diſtance to which the arm could reach before it; or moved ſideways in its own plane; but the apparent dimenſions of the ſquare were leſs when the cloth was applied between the object-lens and its focal image, in proportion (by eſtimate) as the diſtance of the cloth from the focus was leſs. When coarſer muſlins were uſed, the ſquare was

ſmaller

ſmaller according to the coarſeneſs, but in what proportion was not examined, becauſe it was ſuppoſed to follow no very ſimple ratio. No effect of this kind took place with the object-glaſs of a microſcope.

'From theſe facts I inferred as follows:—The middle flame is formed of all the pencils of light which paſs through the central parts of the holes in the cloth without any deflection. The four flames in the middle of the ſides of the ſquare, are formed by the pencils of light inflected towards the ſhort threads bounding each ſquare hole in the cloth, aſſiſted by the deflective power of the oppoſite threads reſpectively. The corner flames are formed by the combined action of the two threads contiguous to the angles of every hole; the ſum of which force, acting in the diagonal with a power varying from the diſtance of the reſpective parts of the lines about the angle, cannot produce an image ſo clear and definite as the ſides. The images are farther aſunder the finer the cloth, becauſe the nearneſs of the threads increaſes the inflection, inſomuch that when the interval is about $\frac{1}{400}$th of an inch there will be no central image. As the images are produced by an equal number of claſſes of pencils parallel to each other, any motion of the cloth either parallel or perpendicular to its own plane before the object glaſs will not affect them, becauſe they come to the object-lens under the ſame circumſtances of parallelism. But when the deflections were made by the cloth between the object-lens and its focus, the poſitions or diſtance of the images were affected more or leſs upon the principle of the priſmatic micrometer. And, laſtly, the microſcope does not ſhew this effect, becauſe the rays from the object, not being parallel, are not uniformly deflected, and have no virtual foci.'

The greateſt part of this theory he conceives to be well founded.

A few uſeful remarks are ſuggeſted in the paper, on 'the deſcription of an inſtrument which renders the electricity of the atmoſphere and other weak charges very perceptible, without the poſſibility of an equivocal reſult.' We muſt here, however, refer the reader to the paper itſelf, as it cannot be well underſtood without the plates.

Among the editor's 'obſervations on the art of printing books and piece goods by the action of cylinders,' we have met with many that deſerve the notice and examination of the artiſt, as it is only by the full knowledge of circumſtances that real improvements can be made.

The paper 'on the method of obviating the effects of heat and cold in time-pieces' is of the practical kind, beſide giving an hiſtorical detail of the progreſſive improvements in the conſtruction of ſuch inſtruments, offers many hints of importance to the mechanic.

The great utility of illumination, for the various purpoſes of life, renders every attempt to afford it more cheaply and more conveniently of great importance. Mr. N. ſeems to have turned his attention to theſe objects, though hitherto with no great degree of ſucceſs. His 'obſervations and experiments on the light, expenſe, and conſtruction of lamps and candles, and the probability of

of rendering tallow a ſubſtitute for wax,' are, however, ſuch as may lay the foundation of more ſucceſsful trials, and require the full conſideration of thoſe engaged on theſe ſubjects. A few of the experiments, which our active inquirer has made reſpecting candles, may not be unacceptable to the reader.

Speaking of tallow, he ſays, p. 72.—'But the moſt deciſive remedy for the imperfection of this cheapeſt, and in other reſpects beſt material for candles, would undoubtedly be to diminiſh its fuſibility. Various ſubſtances may be combined with tallow, either in the direct or indirect method. In the latter way, by the decompoſition of ſoap, a number of experiments were made by Berthollet, of which an account is inſerted in the Memoirs of the Academy at Paris for the year 1780, and copied into the 26th volume of the Journal de Phyſique. None of theſe point directly to the preſent object; beſides which, it is probable that the ſoap made uſe of by that eminent chemiſt was formed not of tallow, but oil. I am not aware of any regular ſeries of experiments concerning the mutual action of fat oils and other chemical agents, more eſpecially ſuch as may be directed to this important object of diminiſhing its ſolubility; for which reaſon I ſhall mention a few experiments made with this view.

'1. Tallow was melted in a ſmall ſilver veſſel. Solid tallow ſinks in the fluid, and diſſolves without any remarkable appearance. 2. Gum ſandarach in tears was not diſſolved, but emitted bubbles, ſwelled up, became brown, emitted fumes, and became criſp or friable. No ſolution nor improvement of the tallow. 3. Shell-lac ſwelled up with bubbles, and was more perfectly fuſed than the gum ſandarach in the former experiment. When the tallow was poured off, it was thought to congeal rather more ſpeedily. The lac did not appear to be altered. 4. Benzoine bubbled without much ſwelling, was fuſed, and emitted fumes of an agreeable ſmell, though not reſembling the flowers of benzoin. A ſlight or partial ſolution ſeemed to take place. The benzoin was ſofter and of a darker colour than before, and the tallow leſs conſiſtent. 5. Common reſin unites very readily with melted tallow, and forms a more fuſible compound than the tallow itſelf. 6. Camphor melts eaſily in tallow, without altering its appearance. When the tallow is near boiling, camphoric fumes fly off. The compound appeared more fuſible than tallow. 7. The acid or flowers of benzoin diſſolves in great quantities without any ebullition or commotion. Much ſmoke ariſes from the compound, which does not ſmell like the acid of benzoin. Tallow alone does not fume at a low heat, though it emits a ſmell ſomething like that of oil-olive. When the proportion of the acid was conſiderable, ſmall needled cryſtals appeared as the temperature diminiſhed. The appearances of ſeparation are different according to the quantity of acid. The compound has the hardneſs and conſiſtence of firm ſoap, and is partially tranſparent. 8. Vitriolated tartar, nitre, white ſugar, cream of tartar, cryſtallized borax, and the ſalt ſold in the markets under the name of ſalt of lemons, but which is ſuppoſed to be the eſſential ſalt of ſorrel, or vegetable alkali ſuperſaturated with acid of ſugar, were reſpectively tried without any obvious mutual action or change

change of properties in the tallow. 9. Calcined magneſia rendered tallow opake and turbid, but did not ſeem to diſſolve. Its effect reſembled that of lime.

'It is propoſed to try the oxigenated acetous acid, or radical vinegar; the acid of ants, of ſugar, of borax, of galls, the tanning principle, the ſerous and gelatinous animal matter, the fecula of vegetables, vegetable gluten, bird-lime, and other principles, either by direct or indirect application. The object, in a commercial point of view, is entitled to an extenſive and aſſiduous inveſtigation. Chemiſts in general ſuppoſe the hardneſs or leſs fuſibility of wax to ariſe from oxigen, and to this object it may perhaps be advantageous to direct a certain portion of the enquiry. The metallic ſalts and calces are the combinations from which this principle is moſt commonly obtained; but the combinations of theſe with fat oils have hitherto afforded little promiſe of the improvement here ſought. The ſubject is however ſo little known, that experiments of the looſeſt and moſt conjectural kind are by no means to be deſpiſed.'

The paper on roſe-water, eau de luce, ſoap of wool, and ſeaſickneſs, contains notices on theſe ſeveral different ſubjects, ſome of which are intereſting. Here, however, our author's experiments are not always deciſive, but ſtill they may ſerve to guide the inquirer to more ſatisfactory attempts.

The paper compriſing the deſcriptions of the air-pumps of Prince and Cuthbertſon has alſo ſome uſeful practical remarks on the beſt means of conſtructing inſtruments of this ſort.

In a ſubſequent paper we alſo meet with communications of much utility from the editor. Thoſe on a method of preventing heat in grinding, and on the plumb-line and ſpirit-level, are particularly intereſting to the artiſt.

The electrical experiments of lieutenant-colonel Haldane are certainly ingenious, but the practical concluſions to which they lead are not very important. Theſe trials ſeem, however, to have been conducted with great care and attention to the ſubject of inquiry.

The communication 'on the mechanical conſtruction and uſes of the ſcrew' is valuable, as tending to improve a proceſs of great utility in the arts.

What the exact compoſition of the beſt *eau de luce* is, is perhaps not yet well aſcertained by chemiſts. The experiments of Mr. N.'s correſpondent ſeem to throw ſome light on the ſubject, though they do not appear to have been made with great accuracy. The following account is given of the compoſition by the experimenter himſelf.

P. 167.—'Digeſt ten or twelve grains of the whiteſt pieces of maſtic, ſelected for this purpoſe and powdered, in two ounces of alcohol; and, when nearly diſſolved, add twenty grains of elemi. When both the reſins are diſſolved, add ten or fifteen drops of rectified oil of amber, and fifteen or twenty of eſſence of bergamot: ſhake the whole well together, and let the fæces ſubſide. The ſolution will be of a pale amber colour. It is to be added in very ſmall portions to the beſt aqua ammoniæ puræ, until it aſſumes a milky

milky whiteneſs—ſhaking the phial well after each addition, as directed by Macquer. The ſtrength and cauſticity of the ammoniac are of moſt eſſential conſequence. If, upon the addition of the firſt drop or two of the tincture, a denſe opake coagulated precipitate is formed—not much unlike that which appears on dropping a ſolution of ſilver into water ſlightly impregnated with common ſalt—it is too ſtrong, and muſt be diluted with alcohol. A conſiderable proportion of the tincture, perhaps one to four, ought to be requiſite to give the liquor the proper degree of opacity. I have frequently ſince made an eau de luce in this way, in which no depoſition has afterwards appeared.'

The notice on the purification of mercury is of importance to different artiſts, though we believe the proceſs but little known among them. Its principle and nature are thus deſcribed.

P. 182.—' The proceſs is grounded on the fact, that the metals with which mercury is uſually contaminated, become converted into a black powder (by partial calcination, when agitated with reſpirable air. Take a glaſs vial with a ground ſtopper (ſuch being generally pretty ſtrong), capable of containing 10 or 12 ounces of water, and fill about one-fourth of it with the foul quickſilver; then putting on the ſtopper, let the bottle be held inverted with both hands, ſhaking it violently by ſtriking the hand that ſupports it againſt the knee. After twenty or thirty ſtrokes, take out the ſtopper, and blow into the vial to change the air. For the purer the air the faſter the proceſs advances. After a ſhort time, if the mercury be very foul, the ſurface will not only become black, but a great quantity of the upper part will appear as if coagulated. In this ſituation the vial is to be inverted; and covering the mouth of it with the finger, all the mercury that will flow eaſily is to be let out, and the black coagulated part put into a cup by itſelf. The running mercury may be ſeparated from the black powder, by preſſing this maſs repeatedly with the finger. This mercury is to be added to the reſt, in order to be agitated again.

' The proceſs muſt be repeated till no more black matter can be ſeparated; and it is not a little remarkable, that the operator will be at no loſs to know when the operation is completed. For the ſame quantity of lead ſeems to come out of it in equal times of agitation, and conſequently the whole becomes pure at once. The ſound of the pure mercury is louder and more harſh than while it contained the adulteration; ſo that by this criterion the end of the proceſs is eaſily diſtinguiſhed.'

The notices on the method of cloſing wide mouthed veſſels for philoſophical purpoſes, the preſervation of gunpowder, the granulation of ſhot, and the precipitation of magneſia, are alſo of the uſeful kind, but without much novelty.

We have yet much to learn reſpecting electrical phenomena, as well as many of the facts already diſcovered in the ſcience of electricity; and Mr. N., by deſcribing new phenomena and ſuggeſting new conjectures, does not leſſen the difficulties of the inquirer. The phenomena which he has here noticed are however intereſting to the philoſopher, and his conjectures not without probability.

They relate to 'the changes of colour, and direction of the clouds, during a thunder-ſtorm.'

In the paper containing 'experimental reſearches to aſcertain the nature of the proceſs by which the eye adapts itſelf to produce diſtinct viſion,' Mr. N. has given a clear and ſuccinct account of what has been already advanced on the ſubject, and offered a few remarks, that are not unworthy of attention, but we do not find, that he has made any new experiments.

In the notices 'on ſtyrian ſteel, elaſtic ſtrings for muſical inſtruments and other purpoſes, and wheels without cogs,' we have ſome hints that may be of uſe if attended to by the ingenious artiſt.

The obſervations of the editor 'on the electrophore tending to explain the means, by which the torpedo and other fiſh communicate the electric ſhock,' are highly curious and engaging. It is ſuggeſted, that, in concluding reſpecting 'the manner in which electric fiſh communicate the ſhock, we may ſafely avoid the more complicated conſideration of the electrophore, and compare the action immediately to that of a ſimple jar.'

On the nature or manner of the operation, Mr. N. ſays, p. 358, 'There are no facts which ſhew how this charge is actually produced, maintained, and communicated. Whether electricity be actually collected, compoſed, or decompoſed in the organs of the fiſh, or whether it ſimply exiſts in thoſe organs, as perhaps it may in all bodies, in the ſtate of what is called compenſation, are queſtions concerning which we in fact know nothing. It has appeared to me, from the obſervation of the high electric ſtate which talc naturally poſſeſſes, and from the innumerable ſhocks the electrophore is capable of giving by mere change of arrangement, that a machine might be conſtructed alſo capable of giving numberleſs ſhocks at pleaſure, and of retaining its power for months, years, or to an extent of time of which the limits can be determined only by experiment. I will not here deſcribe the mechanical combinations which have occurred to me in meditating on this ſubject, but ſhall ſimply ſhew that the dimenſions of the organs of the torpedo are ſuch as by certain very poſſible motions, and the allowable ſuppoſition of conducting and non-conducting powers, may produce the effects we obſerve. How far it may be probable muſt undoubtedly be left to future experimental reſearch.'

And again he obſerves: 'in new talc, which had never been excited nor electrified, and exhibited no ſigns of electricity when applied to Bennet's electrometer, I found that the laminæ were naturally in ſtrong, oppoſite, electric ſtates, counterbalancing each other. When they were torn aſunder in the dark, they gave flaſhes at leaſt 1-10th of an inch long to each other: This is 1875 times the intenſity of the torpedinal electricity, as before deduced. If, therefore, one or more columns of talc, or other thin electric plates 1-300th of an inch thick, and making up the ſurface of the electric organs of the torpedo, were ſo conſtructed as that the plates might touch each other by pairs only, naturally in oppoſite ſtates, and coated on the outſide; if, moreover, there were one common

common conductor communicating with the upper plate of every pair, and another in the ſame manner with the lower;—then a ſeparation of all the pairs to the diſtance of only $\frac{1}{18750}$ inch would produce the torpedinal intenſity; the equilibrium would be reſtored by the two conductors if made to communicate, and whatever living creature was in the circuit would receive a ſhock: and on reſtoring the original ſituation of the apparatus, a ſhock might alſo be given. The force of theſe ſhocks would differ according to the quantity of the apparatus made uſe of at the time, or the diſtance to which the plates were drawn aſunder. If different columns were exploded in rapid ſucceſſion, the quick repetition of ſmall ſhocks would produce the tremulous ſenſation.

'If,' continues he, 'we were to conjecture that the torpedo actually operates like a machine of this kind, we ſhould find our ſuppoſition to include the following ſubordinate parts:—1. The membranes may be non-conductors, and the fluid between them a conductor. 2. They may act as electrophores. 3. The white reticular matter between the columns may conſiſt of conductors ſeparately leading to the two oppoſite ſurfaces. 6. Theſe ſeparate conductors, in all their ſubdiviſions, may be well kept aſunder by a covering of non-electric matter. If this be of the ſame kind as the membranes, and $\frac{1}{10000}$th of an inch thick, it would be ſufficient for the purpoſe, becauſe the intenſity of the electric ſtate is deduced from its power of breaking through a much more permeable electric, namely, air, at nearly twice that interval. 7. The effects may alſo be produced by the motion of conducting plates in a non-conducting fluid.'

Mr. N.'s obſervations on 'a method of diſpoſing Gunter's line of numbers,' ſo as to increaſe the diviſions and produce other advantages; and on the mechanical projects for affording a perpetual motion, are valuable in different reſpects. They not only ſhow the inquiſitive reader what has been done, but put him in the way of making improvements. The nature of the different objects are alſo rendered clear and intelligible. They are therefore brought forward with the greateſt propriety in a journal of philoſophy and the arts.

In the notices 'on ſilver alloyed with crude platina, tempering of ſteel, and rifled ſhot,' there are a few hints of value, and an experiment or two that may tend to introduce improvements. Some of the obſervations that we meet with on theſe ſubjects are not however new.

The paper 'concerning the ſteam engine as originally invented by the marquis of Worceſter, and the improvements ſince made in ſteam engines without the piſton or lever; with a deſcription of an engine of this kind conſtructed by Mr. Peter Kier, of Kentiſh Town,' is intereſting in many points of view. It preſents the reader with an uſeful account of this invention, and of it's progreſſive improvements on the principle here ſtated. The editor has alſo thrown out a hint or two for future improvements. Communications of this ſort are highly proper and uſeful in a journal of this kind.

'On the mechaniſm by which the mariner's compaſs is ſuſpended' we find a very uſeful and ingenious paper. Mr. N. obſerves that, P. 426,—'in a well-conſtructed mariner's compaſs the needle is defended from the impulſe of the air, and is little ſubject to be diſturbed by the external motions or agitation of a ſhip at ſea. As this diſturbance is, however, the chief impediment to the convenient uſe of the compaſs in a boat, where the motions are ſudden and ſhort, or in a ſhip, when the waves are very turbulent; and as the artiſts in this branch have endeavoured to perſuade the world that certain pieces of mechaniſm were much ſuperior in their uſe to others differently diſpoſed;—I thought,' ſays he, 'it might be of ſome utility to explain the ſimple principles of a good ſuſpenſion.'

After deſcribing different means employed for improving this invention, Mr. N. ſays, P. 427, 'the ſimple ſuſpenſion of the needle on a point has been applied to the compaſs-box, for which it is little ſuited, not only becauſe of the wear upon ſo ſmall a ſurface, but alſo becauſe it admits the box to traverſe horizontally; an effect which is inconvenient, and cannot be remedied by any means not calculated in ſome reſpect to increaſe the effects of agitation. The method moſt generally received, and in fact the beſt adapted to this inſtrument, are the gimbals.

'This well-known contrivance conſiſts of an hoop ſupported upon two pins diametrically oppoſite each other, and iſſuing from the external ſurface of the ring in ſuch a direction that both lie in the ſame diametrical line. When the hoop is ſuſpended on theſe pins, it is at liberty to turn freely round the diameter of which they conſtitute the prolongation. The notches or holes of ſupport are diſpoſed horizontally. The compaſs-box itſelf is placed in a ſimilar ring with two projecting pivots; and theſe pivots are inſerted in holes made in the former ring at an equal diſtance from each of its pivots. If, therefore, we ſuppoſe the whole to be left at liberty, the compaſs-box may vibrate upon the diametral line of the outer ring, and alſo upon a line formed by its own pivots, at right angles to that diametral line. The conſequence of this arrangement is, that the centre of gravity of the compaſs-box will diſpoſe itſelf immediately beneath the interſection of both lines on which it is at liberty to move:—that is to ſay, if the weight of the box or its parts be properly diſpoſed, the compaſs will aſſume a poſition in which its upper ſurface ſhall be horizontal.

'The ſame principles which were applied to the ſingle centre of the magnetic needle will alſo apply to the axis of the gimbals. If the centre of gravity of the compaſs box be ſo placed with reſpect to either axis as that its vibrations ſhall be quick, every horizontal action will greatly diſturb it, and it will not ſpeedily ſettle. The moſt favourable poſition of the pivots or edges of ſupport in the gimbals will be when they all lie in the ſame plane, and the centre of gravity of the compaſs-box is very little below that plane.'

Theſe are his principal concluſions, and they are certainly ingenious.

The

The practical application of this reaſoning, ſays Mr. N., is, P. 428, 'that, without pretending, as has been done, that any peculiar ſecret or great diſcovery is required to give ſtability to this uſeful inſtrument, nothing more is required than good workmanſhip, and a proper adjuſtment of the weight with regard to the centres or axes of ſuſpenſion. The needle ought to be adjuſted either by means of its cap, or by proper filing away, or elſe by additional pieces to the card, ſo that it ſhall vibrate very little, and that ſlowly, when placed upon a point and moved horizontally, whether in the direction of the needle or at right angles to that direction. The card is then ready for the compaſs-box. The box itſelf muſt be adjuſted with the card in its place, ſo that it ſhall exhibit the ſame ſteadineſs when moved in the line of direction of the outer pivots. And laſtly, the ſame diſpoſition muſt be made with regard to the motion in the direction of the inner pivots.' In fact, the chief aim of this communication 'is to enforce the truth, that the compaſs is very little diſturbed, at ſea or elſewhere, by tilting the box on one ſide, but very much by ſudden horizontal changes of place; and, conſequently, that a ſcientific proviſion againſt the latter is the chief requiſite in a well-made inſtrument of this kind. And again, that nothing is more eaſy than to aſcertain whether a compaſs poſſeſſes ſtability; ſince nothing more is requiſite than to ſlide it upon a table in the ſeveral directions above mentioned, and remark how far it is diſturbed. The good workmanſhip of the cap and pin of the needle may be aſcertained by inſpection with a magnifier, and alſo by drawing the card with a ſmall key or other piece of iron, a very little quantity, for example a quarter of a degree, out of its ſtation or poſition, and remarking whether it returns accurately to its original ſtation.'

'On the maintaining power in clocks and watches,' our author has likewiſe offered ſome reflections, that deſerve the notice of the mechanic employed in the fabrication of articles of theſe kinds.

We have already noticed a paper of lieutenant-colonel Haldane's, and we have here another, containing 'experiments made with a view to aſcertain the cauſe of buildings, which have metallic conductors belonging to them, being ſtruck by lightning.' We cannot lay theſe ingenious experiments before the reader, but ſhall give ſome of the concluſions reſpecting the conſtruction of conductors.

P. 439.—'From this experiment,' ſays the author, 'it appears to be manifeſt, that the advantages ariſing from metallic conductors, erected for the purpoſes of ſecuring buildings from the effects of lightning, depend more upon the lower ſurface of the body of charged air extending over them, than upon their form or conſtruction.

'It is not eaſy to decide, from the reſult of the experiment, whether they ſhould be terminated by *points* or by *balls*. Probably, with reſpect to the large operations of nature, there may be no difference. The ball uſed in this experiment is three inches diameter; the largeſt ſurface of charged air ſcarcely exceeded 70 ſquare feet: but if ſome acres of charged air were brought into

action, the ball of three inches would ſoon be reduced to a point. However, as the ſubject has occaſioned much controverſy, we may take the opportunity of inveſtigating it from the data afforded by this experiment.

'If we reaſon upon what is exhibited in the firſt and third caſes, it is obvious that pointed conductors are to be preferred to thoſe terminated by balls. They have the property of acting at a much greater diſtance than balls, and have the power of deſtroying, ſilently, the effects of lightning, when balls can only accompliſh it by means of an exploſion, which muſt always be attended with ſome danger.

'But if we reaſon upon the reſult in the ſecond caſe, we ſhall find that the power which points have of acting at a greater diſtance than balls, will make them more liable to produce the miſchief ſhewn in that experiment.

'Under theſe conſiderations, the conductor terminated by a ball might be thought preferable to one terminated by a point: but when we recollect that moſt of the metallic ſubſtances which belong to buildings are generally terminated in edges and points; that they have the ſame influence as the point upon the conductor; that their operation may be attended with more danger, and that they may extend their influence beyond that of a conductor terminated by a ball; we may therefore conclude, that the height to which a pointed conductor is generally raiſed above the other metallic ſubſtances belonging to a building, when compared with the vaſt diſtances at which lightning can act, will not increaſe, in any great degree, the danger to which a building may be expoſed under the circumſtances exhibited in the ſecond caſe of this experiment: and therefore conductors that are terminated by points are more likely to produce the good effects expected from them than thoſe which are terminated by balls.

'Theſe conſiderations upon the effects that may be produced by the joint operations of poſitive and negative electricity, have, thus far, been confined to what may happen within a ſpace occupied by a building; but they may be extended to much greater ſpaces upon the ſurface of the earth. A conductor may be ſtruck by lightning, and (if the lower ſurface of the body of charged air extends over no part of the building) may convey the lightning into the earth, without the leaſt miſchief being done to the building; but when the lightning arrives at the lower extremity of the conductor, there is no proof that by its union with the earth it becomes decompoſed. That decompoſition cannot happen until it becomes united with its oppoſite electricity, which may be attached to a body of earth or ſubſtances far removed from the conductor. The lightning will therefore continue its operations until it arrives at the place where the oppoſite electricity is preſent, and in its paſſage will occaſion much miſchief if it does not meet with good conducting ſubſtances.'

Mr. Sadler's paper on the 'new conſtruction of the air pump' exhibits ſome hints, apparently of great utility and importance; but experience is the only ſure teſt in matters of this kind, as many

many things ſeem plauſible in theory, which on trial, turn out quite the contrary.

The communication of the rev. Mr. Pearſon, of Lincoln, 'on the advantage of inverting the ſlider in many operations on the common ſliding rule,' contains, we have no doubt, a very uſeful practical improvement, but the great difficulty is in convincing the labourer that it is ſo, and Mr. P. has juſtly remarked the diſadvantages that proceed from this ſource.

The 'obſervations and experiments of the editor, on ſteel, reſembling that of Damaſcus; with an eaſy teſt for determining the uniform quality of ſteel before it is employed in works of delicacy or expence,' are really valuable to the manufacturer. After relating the appearances and properties preſented by a ſword blade of the true Damaſcus fabrication, Mr. N. ſays, P. 469,—'From theſe circumſtances, as well as from the price, I was induced to think that the blade was compoſed of ſteel and iron, and that the proceſs of forging was ſuch as greatly to enhance the coſt, by the labour and management it might require. For if we ſuppoſe the pieces to be united together at the welding heat, and then forged or drawn out, it is certain that no ſmall degree of ſkill and care would be required to render all the parts ſound, and at the ſame time preſerve the ſteel and iron in poſſeſſion of their characteriſtic properties. Too great a heat would probably render the whole maſs more uniform than is conſiſtent with the ſubſequent production of the water or wavy appearance. In my attempt to imitate this ſteel, I endeavoured to ſubſtitute a mechanical contrivance in the place of this ſuppoſed careful forging.

'I cauſed a cylindrical hole of about one inch in diameter to be bored through a piece of caſt iron, the lower part of which could be ſo placed upon an anvil as to cloſe one end of the hole. A forged iron plug was made nearly to fit the cylindrical hole, but conſiderably longer. Equal weights of german ſteel and ſweediſh iron, both in filings, were then well mixed with oil, and wrapped in a paper, which had before been rolled upon the plug, and conſequently fitted the cylinder. The ends of the paper were neatly folded; and the whole maſs being then put into the caſt-iron cylinder placed upon the anvil, a few blows were given by driving the plug into the hole with a heavy hammer. By this means the maſs of filings, when thruſt out of the cylinder, was compact and manageable. It was then placed in a charcoal fire, and urged to a welding heat by the double bellows. Thence it was taken with the tongs; again haſtily put into the cylinder, and hammered by means of the plug and the heavy hammer. When it was taken out, the whole was found to be conſolidated; but upon forging it into a plate, a conſiderable portion flew off in a crumbly form. The plate, however, was filed up, ſmoothed, and examined.

'Its colour preſented nothing remarkable. When weak nitrous acid was poured upon it, it became mottled in conſequence of the numerous ſmall black ſpots which appeared upon the particles of ſteel, while thoſe of iron remained clean. On the nitrous acid being waſhed off, the ſurface appeared wavy like the Damaſcus

ſteel, but ſcarcely at all fibrous; doubtleſs becauſe the ſolid had not been drawn out by forging. An attempt was made to harden it by ignition and cooling in water; but it ſtill remained ſoft enough to be cut with the graving tool, the point of which did not indicate any difference in that reſpect between the parts of iron and of ſteel, though it is very probable ſuch a difference did really exiſt.

'I infer, therefore, that the Damaſcus ſteel is in fact a mechanical mixture of ſteel and iron; that it is incapable of any conſiderable degree of hardneſs, and conſequently is in no danger of breaking from its brittleneſs; that its tenacity is enſured not only from the admixture of iron, but likewiſe from the facility with which its ſoundneſs may be aſcertained throughout, by the ſame proceſs which exhibits the water or fibrous appearance: and, laſtly, that the edge of a weapon formed of this material muſt be rough, on account of the different reſiſtance which the two ſubſtances afford to the grindſtone, in conſequence of which it will operate as a ſaw, and more readily cut through yielding ſubſtances than ſuch cutting tools as are formed of a more uniform ſubſtance.'

The teſt which our author employs is that of a diluted nitrous acid, which is unqueſtionably well calculated for the purpoſe.

The communications 'on the irritability of the pollen of plants,' and 'on the compoſition for cloſing wide-mouthed veſſels,' preſent curious phenomena to the botanical inquirer. The fact reſpecting the want of power in acids, to deſtroy the writer's compoſition for cloſing the mouths of veſſels, we are inclined to queſtion. Farther trials are however neceſſary on the ſubject.

The communication of profeſſor Mitchill, containing 'an attempt to accommodate the diſpute among the chemiſts, concerning phlogiſton,' addreſſed to Dr. Prieſtley, in our opinion, ſeems rather to embarraſs than clear up the matters of diſpute. The introduction of *new* terms is ſurely a bad method of clearing away *old* objections, and profeſſor Mitchill has certainly done nothing more. Deciſive experiments are the only ſure teſts, but theſe are unfortunately wanting in the profeſſor's attempt.

Mr. Kirwan's paper, preſenting 'experiments on the compoſition and proportion of carbon in bitumens and mineral coal,' is entitled to more notice. Reflecting on the difficulties of analyzing theſe ſubſtances by the ordinary means, it occurred to Mr. K., p. 488,—'That partly by combuſtion and partly by their efficacy in decompoſing nitre, the ſecret of their internal compoſition might poſſibly be unveiled.

'1. Combuſtion. I have obſerved that all the ſpecies of ſolid bitumen properly ſo called, when laid on a red hot iron, burn with a large bright flame, ſmoke and ſoot, leaving none or ſcarce any coaly reſiduum, and only a little aſhes:

'That the ſofter bitumens, as maltha, burn in the ſame manner, leaving no coal, but only a little aſhes, and requiring no increaſe of heat for their entire conſumption:

'That aſphalt burns with flame and ſoot, but melts and ſwells, and requires for its entire conſumption an increaſe of heat, leaving ſcarce any coal, and but little aſhes.

'It

'It is moreover well known that liquid bitumens contain inflammable air and carbon: that they abſorb atmoſpheric air when long expoſed to it and light: that, in conſequence of this abſorption, they are thickened, blackened, and condenſed, firſt into mineral tar, then into mineral pitch or maltha, and laſtly into aſphalt: that almoſt all ſpecies of mineral coal yield more or leſs of both ſpecies of bitumen in diſtillation, leaving a ſhining coaly reſiduum: but that the proportion is variable in every ſpecies according to the degree of heat applied; that the reſiduum always obſtinately retains a proportion of bitumen, and that conſequently diſtillation, in addition to its other imperfections, is an inſufficient medium whereby to diſcern the proportion of carbon and bitumen, and conſequently to diſcriminate the various ſorts of mineral coal from each other.

'2. Decompoſition of nitre. It has long ago been remarked by the juſtly celebrated Macquer, that nitre detonates with no oily inflammable matter, until ſuch matter is reduced to a coal, and then only in proportion to the carbonaceous matter it contains. An obſervation, the truth of which will fully appear in the ſubſequent experiments.

'Hence it occurred to me that, ſince in the act of detonation nitre is always totally or partially decompoſed, and ſince, where carbonaceous compounds are employed, this decompoſition ariſes ſolely from the mere carbonaceous parts, and, every thing elſe being equal, is proportioned to the quantity of mere carbon they contain; and ſince moſt ſpecies of coals are compounds of mere carbon and bitumen, as appears by the products of their diſtillation; it ſhould follow, that, by the decompoſition of nitre, the quantity of mere carbon in a given quantity of every ſpecies of coal may be diſcovered; and this being known, that of bitumen may be inferred; and, the other uneſſential ingredients being detected by incineration, the whole contents of coaly ſubſtances might be aſcertained.'

For the experiments and reſults of the author on theſe principles we refer the reader to the paper itſelf.

The communication 'on the various denominations given to the alkali of tartar' contains many juſt remarks, but the writer is more happy in pointing out the inconvenience, than providing a remedy.

'On fairy rings' the editor has ſimply related what he ſaw, in order to render it probable, that theſe effects may, under certain circumſtances, be produced by lightning.

We have thus noticed moſt of the original papers of the preſent volume, from which the reader will ſee, that this philoſophical journal is not a haſty compilation of ſuch materials as the editor could moſt readily lay hold of, but an able, judicious, and well meant endeavour, to propagate and improve ſcientific knowledge. It muſt alſo be obſerved, that the portion of matter, which we have thus examined, is but ſmall in compariſon of the whole; and that much of what we have been obliged to paſs over is not leſs worthy of the reader's attention, than that which has been here preſented to his view.

MEDICINE.

MEDICINE. SURGERY.

ART. VI. *A Third Diſſertation on Fever. Part I. Containing the Hiſtory and Method of Treatment of a regular continued Fever, ſuppoſing it is left to purſue its ordinary Courſe.* By George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 260 pages. Price 4s. ſewed. Johnſon. 1798.

WE return again to the examination of this able and ingenious author's opinions of fever with the greater pleaſure, as he here comes to the conſideration of the hiſtory and treatment of a very frequent and often troubleſome diſeaſe; 'a regular continued fever.' Doctor F. begins by attempting to ſhow what the appearances are, that ought not to be conſidered as continued fever. The chief object of making theſe diſtinctions, he ſays, is to diſcriminate between diſeaſes, where it is only neceſſary to remove the cauſe to cure the patient: for the doctor conceives, that a fever may go on though it's cauſe be removed. If this notion, which we cannot think philoſophical, be founded in fact, the importance and utility of ſuch diſtinctions muſt be admitted.

On the nature of the attack of this kind of fever our author gives the following account.

P. 21.—'A regular continued fever takes place exactly in the manner of an ephemera, or a regular tertian; nor would it be poſſible, from the appearance of the diſeaſe, to determine whether it would be an ephemera ſimplex, a regular tertian, or a regular continued fever. The circumſtance of a patient's living in a country, where intermittents were endemic, from moiſture or putrefaction, ariſing in marſhy grounds, in warm climates; or of intermittents being from any cauſe epidemic in dry countries, might make a practitioner ſuſpect that the diſeaſe would be an intermittent or remitting fever. But without ſuch circumſtances, no appearance in the patient himſelf would, within two or three hours of the attack, at all enable him to determine what kind of fever it would prove.

'Continued fevers ſometimes then begin at once exactly with the ſame ſymptoms as an ephemera. At times, however, there ariſes immediately upon application of the cauſe of diſeaſe, particularly if it ſhould be expoſure to cold, putrefaction, or infection, ſome derangement of the ſyſtem, but no complete paroxyſm of fever. Theſe derangements conſiſt of languor, the patient's not feeling himſelf perfectly well, and being unable to exert the powers of his body or his mind, whether for buſineſs or amuſement, ſo perfectly as when in abſolute health. Sometimes his ſleep is diſturbed; he does not go to ſleep readily; his ſleep during the night is broken, and he is not refreſhed ſo much as uſual. It happens ſometimes that theſe ſymptoms go off in a few days; ſometimes they all at once increaſe very conſiderably, and form a paroxyſm, which is the beginning of the fever.'

On ſleep, and the powers of the mind, the doctor has offered us very little information. The chief concluſions he has made on the firſt ſubject are, P. 40, that 'in ſleep the judgment is often totally at reſt; perhaps the memory and imagination are ſometimes alſo totally at reſt; the power of perception in the mind is certainly ſometimes totally at reſt; the ſtate of the body, which gives the mind a means

a means of perception, is alſo in ſome inſtances, perhaps in all, totally at reſt: the muſcular exertions, not neceſſary for life, are totally at reſt, excepting where habit has made it more eaſy for certain exertions to take place; and laſtly, the muſcular powers of the body, which are neceſſary for life, act with leſs vigour. Sleep, therefore, may be conſidered a ſtate of reſt, during which the powers of the ſyſtem are recruited; or, to go on with the ſimile firſt begun with, the dam is ſhut up, ſo that the waters accumulate in it, and are ready to be applied, to bring the whole of the machine into action.'

Doctor F. has employed much unſatisfactory reaſoning on the ſubject of the evening paroxyſm of fever. The practical concluſions, which after all he has arrived at, are barely theſe:

P. 67.—'The cauſes then which reproduce fever are apparently two, one that reproduces a remittent and intermittent fever at the expiration of a certain period of time; the other the natural evening paroxyſm, which reproduces a continued fever; both of which, as far as the ſcience of medicine has hitherto been inveſtigated, are perfectly incomprehenſible.

'It is to be remarked in the firſt place, that theſe different cauſes ſerve to diſtinguiſh between an intermittent and remittent on one hand, and a continued fever on the other hand. For if we find, in the firſt days of a fever, when there is no perfect intermiſſion, that the exacerbation takes place between five and ſix o'clock in the evening, or a little later, we may conclude, that the diſeaſe is a continued fever; but if the exacerbations take place at any other time in the twenty-four hours, that it will terminate in an intermittent or remittent fever.'

In maintaining an opinion, which is certainly not new, that depreſſion of ſtrength is the cauſe of the putrefaction of the fluids in fever, the author has taken up much time. The ſum of what he contends for on this point is, P. 89, that 'ſince there is nothing applied to the living body to prevent putrefaction, which is not alſo applied to the dead body when it putrifies very faſt;

'Since no freſh matter is added to the living body during the time in which the dead body, placed in the ſame circumſtances, would putrefy;

'Since the depreſſion of ſtrength takes place always in a fever before there be any appearances of putrefaction;

'And laſtly, ſince when the blood is rendered putrid by putreſcent matter being thrown into it, depreſſion of ſtrength always takes place before there be any appearance of putrefaction;

'It may be concluded, that the depreſſion of ſtrength is the cauſe of the putrefaction of the fluids in fever, and not the putrefaction of the fluids the cauſe of the depreſſion of ſtrength.'

In treating the ſubject of delirium the author has thrown out an idea or two, that may be uſeful in practice. He thinks, that from fever itſelf, and without any accident or irregularity, two ſpecies of delirium may ariſe; one without any material affection of the brain, the other with fulneſs of the veſſels of that organ.

P. 105.—'The firſt ſpecies,' ſays Dr. F., 'ſeldom happens in the firſt paroxyſm of a regular continued fever, excepting it be very ſevere; there is very often ſome appearance of it in the ſecond evening of the diſeaſe; the patient ſleeps confuſedly; immediately upon waking, does not recollect his bed, or bed chamber, or the people that are about him;

him; but recollection returns in a few minutes, the eyes are ſufficiently clear, neither confuſed nor ſtupid, nor are the blood veſſels fuller than in the ordinary ſtate.

'There is a degree of perfect ſtupidity and liſtleſsneſs in the appearance of the eye, which takes place not uncommonly in the firſt exacerbation of a continued fever, which is a very fatal ſymptom, but which the author thinks is an irregularity in the diſeaſe, and which in conſequence will be taken notice of in a future diſſertation.

'The want of perfect recollection, if the diſeaſe is not very violent, goes off generally in the morning, about ſeven or eight o'clock of the civil day, and the patient remains recollected till the beginning of the fourth paroxyſm, but yet not perfectly clear in his ideas, and in full poſſeſſion of the powers of his mind.

'Every evening the delirium grows more and more ſevere; but ſtill there is very conſiderable relaxation in the day time, and this continues to increaſe until the ſeventh or eighth day of the diſeaſe.

'When this kind of delirium ariſes to a great height, about five or ſix o'clock in the evening, the patient begins to be very confuſed; hardly to know the people about him; to talk much and confuſedly about his affairs; to be violent. This violence increaſes till about midnight, when, if the diſeaſe is very great, he endeavours to jump out of bed, or tries to climb up to the top of it, and becomes perfectly unmanageable. This goes on till two or three o'clock in the morning. Then by degrees it ſubſides, and he becomes ſomething more ſenſible about four or five o'clock in the morning. Afterwards perhaps he gets a little ſleep, wakes not ſo confuſed, and during the day-time remains more or leſs ſenſible to external objects.

'Theſe appearances go on much the ſame for five or ſix days, if no criſis ſhould take place. About the fourteenth day of the diſeaſe this delirium begins to ſubſide; the patient becomes much more ſenſible in the day-time; the evening attacks become much more conſpicuous, although not ſo violent, until the diſeaſe finally goes off, the delirium being almoſt the firſt ſymptom of it that diſappears.

'The ſecond ſpecies of delirium, ariſing in a regular continued fever from the fever itſelf, ſeems to go through the following progreſs.

'It alſo evidently begins to appear in the ſecond paroxyſm of the diſeaſe. There is in the evening the ſame confuſion in the perception; the eyes have their veſſels ſomewhat enlarged; the cheeks are a little flushed. Theſe appearances go on increaſing during the firſt week of the diſeaſe; the confuſion grows greater in the evening, and ſometimes all that violent agitation, which has been deſcribed in the former ſpecies of delirium, takes place; but in that caſe the patient does not recover in the morning, but lies ſtupid and almoſt inſenſible. Afterwards if the diſeaſe be very violent, ſtronger and more violent delirium begins to take place between five and ſix o'clock in the evening, which increaſes until two or three o'clock in the morning, and then by degrees the patient again falls into the ſame ſtupor. If this ſhould continue till about the fourteenth day, the evening attacks become by degrees leſs, but the ſtupor continues, with deafneſs, and inattention to external objects, and theſe appearances remain the very laſt ſymptoms of the diſeaſe.'

In

In this kind of delirium the doctor ſuppoſes the material part of the brain to be affected.

On the doctrine of critical days, a doctrine that has cauſed much idle and uſeleſs controverſy in the ſchools of medicine, the author has offered nothing but the explanation long ſince attempted by doctor Cullen in his clinical lectures.

The doctrine of morbific matter is alſo handled at ſome length, and properly rejected, as well as the unintelligible jargon, which has been held by medical writers about nature. Having thus cleared his way, the doctor comes to the treatment of regular continued fever. But here we find little to reward us for the trouble of acquiring a knowledge of thoſe nice diſtinctions, that the author has pointed out; for in twenty-five years hoſpital practice, he tells us, he has not been able to aſcertain, whether patients labouring under fever get well ſooner with or without medicine. Such is the uncertainty of the noble ſcience of phyſic. It may truly be ſaid, to be *ars conjecturalis*.

In the concluding part of this diſſertation, doctor F. touches a little on the province of the nurſe, and gives a variety of directions reſpecting air, clothing, food, &c. of patients in this ſort of fever. His medicinal directions are however but few, and contain nothing that has novelty to recommend them. Various writers on fever have given ſimilar inſtructions concerning their treatment. But notwithſtanding this, the diſſertation deſerves to be attended to by the young practitioner.

ART. VII. *Medical, philoſophical, and vulgar Errors, of various Kinds, conſidered and refuted.* By John Jones, M. B. 8vo. 213 pages. Price 4s. boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

FEW profeſſions, perhaps, abound more with common errours, than that of medicine. The improvements in phyſiology and chemiſtry have indeed cleared away much rubbiſh of this kind, but no inconſiderable maſs ſtill remains, which Dr. Jones aſſures us he is here lending his aid to remove. Leiſure cauſed by a ſevere attack of ſciatica, he tells us, led him to undertake this herculean taſk.

P. 2.—'I thought I could not employ my ſedentary hours better than in an attempt to break a ſpear againſt ſuch deep rooted medical errors as have been permitted to travel down to us from time out of mind, as matters of unqueſtionable veracity, hitherto uncontradicted by any author to my knowledge; not without hopes, while endeavouring to convince my readers of what is wrong, of happily advancing a ſtep farther, and ſhewing them what is right. The readers I addreſs myſelf to, are not thoſe of our profeſſion, not having the preſumption to teach my brethren; who, it is to be hoped, have all been ſufficiently inſtructed already in theſe matters.'

How far this writer may be ſucceſsful in his refutations, we ſhall not determine, but that there is more oddity and whimſicality than ſound ſenſe, in his attempts, we have no heſitation in aſſerting. The following paſſage affords no mean ſpecimen.

P. 18.—'Another abſurdity I ſhall take notice of is, that wherever a phyſician happens to dine in a family, he is generally aſked by the company, whether this or that diſh be wholeſome; or, it may be, which of ſome two is wholeſomeſt; for example, perhaps ſtrawberries and cream, or mock turtle dreſſed in high gout, with its full accompani-

ment of acrid poignant force-meat, combuſtibled and well be-deviled with pepper, ginger, cayenne, ſalt, muſtard, horſe-radiſh, and ſundry pickles, aromatics, and indian provocatives.

'To anſwer this queſtion, without his peruſing the caſe of the eater accurately drawn up, is beyond the ſkill of any phyſician. Quite as rational a queſtion to a wide dealing merchant, who has a variety of ſhips at ſea, would be, which wind he reckons beſt; without ſpecifying to what particular ſhip, and its voyage. This laſt queſtion reminds me of the egregious abſurdity of ſome of our former adulating poets, who (becauſe the romans, for the purpoſe of its cooling their ſcorched air, were in the conſtant habit of invoking their favourite Favonius) were wont to pray for gentle zephyrs to waft over our Georges from Hanover; not foreſeeing, were their prayers heard, that it would prove a wind in their teeth.'

Some of the doctor's errours are not perhaps leſs abſurd, than thoſe he pretends to refute; of this kind is that concerning ſcammony, which he ſays, when 'given to the healthieſt perſon will diſſolve the blood into a putrid water and waſte the whole body by its repeated uſe; the healthy juices being firſt corrupted by the virulency of the medicine and then diſcharged.' Where are the experiments that prove this fact? we are afraid they are not to be found. It is one of Dr. J.'s miſtakes, we are inclined to believe.

Another of the doctor's *refutations* may, perhaps, be ſuſpected. It is this.

P. 35.—'*That digeſtion is performed in the ſtomach.*—I think the ſtomach is principally deſigned for a repoſitory for our food, that we might not be always under a conſtant neceſſity of eating; and that the ſmall inteſtines contribute the moſt towards digeſtion; becauſe being ſmaller than the ſtomach, and narrower, they can act upon ſmaller quantities of food at a time, and have moreover the aſſiſtance of the bile, pancreatic juice, &c.'

There are many others, that are equally ſuſpicious, and to which the author has paid rather too little attention.

We muſt now preſent the reader with a paſſage, in order to ſhow the manner in which this phyſician refutes the vulgar errours of his profeſſion. Theſe are favourable ſpecimens.

P. 73.—'*That it is very hurtful to put infants very young to ſtand upon their legs, as it will make them crooked and bandy-legged.*—By no means; dandling them well, but gently, is very neceſſary towards their health; and uſing them to their feet ſtrengthens their legs very much; one great cauſe of rickets and bandy-legs being the keeping children too much in the cradle, and their want of due exerciſe and friction.

'*That leading-ſtrings are an uſeful invention to bring on children to walk, and prevent falls.*—They are exceedingly hurtful by preſſing in the *ſternum*, which in infants is very weak, and thereby laying the foundation of aſthmas and conſumptions, by thus narrowing their cheſts. Suffering them to take their falls on carpets or graſs-plats will ſooneſt bring them to walk cautiouſly.

'*That idiots were born idiots.*—I will hazard my conjecture to the contrary. May not idiotiſm in general proceed from a St. Vitus's dance, or ſome nervous diſorder, coming on an infant at too early an age to be diſcovered; which, thus diſregarded, may terminate in imbecility and idiotiſm? May it not be frequently brought on by the very common curſed

curſed practice of nurſes giving babes gin for fancied gripes, or opiates to quiet their coughs, that they themſelves may not be diſturbed in their night's reſt? Does not the very remarkable caſe of the Norfolk idiot, who, being thirſty, drank near a pint of white-lead paint inſtead of ſmall-beer, corroborate my opinion? He had been an idiot for ſeventeen years; but this medicine diſcharged ſuch an enormous quantity of worms, ſo that he acquired his perfect ſenſes for the latter part of his life.

'*That when a youth remarkable for his growth, happens to die prematurely, whatever may have been his diſorder, his death is generally attributed to his having out-grown his ſtrength.*—if this doctrine hold good, the king of Pruſſia's tall grenadiers muſt have been the moſt feeble corps in his whole army.

'*That what is called cracking of the voice, in growing up boys, is cauſed by their over ſtraining it at a particular time, in loud ſinging or bawling, or by a great cold.*—I believe this change in the voice proceeds from no accident whatſoever, but is naturally brought on by the growth and enlargement of the *trachæa*, and its *aritenoid cartilages*; large reeds and pipes being deeper toned, and not ſo ſhrill as ſmaller ones. The ſame thing may be perceptibly obſerved in the gradual alteration of voice in the crowing of young cocks, which become deeper toned as their throats become larger in their growing up.

'*That wind inſtruments of muſic are exceedingly prejudicial to young perſons, and naturally tend to induce conſumptions of the lungs.*—I think otherwiſe, provided the uſe of them commence while the lungs are in a perfectly ſound ſtate, as by exerciſe they muſt be rather ſtrengthened than weakened; wind inſtrument performers being remarked for longevity.

'*That young perſons of fair, roſy, florid complexions are the moſt healthy.*—Such, though to the ignorant they would ſeem fartheſt from them, are in reality the moſt liable and apt to fall into conſumptions of the lungs; for the pellucidity of the coats of their veſſels, is a proof of their thinneſs and tenderneſs; and when they attain to nearly their full growth, their blood, promoted by their paſſions, &c. runs high; ſo that the leaſt exceſs in the non-naturals will bring on a rupture of them, and an ulceration of the lungs.

'*That frequent bleedings at the noſe are by no means unhealthy, as they are only proofs of a plethoric fullneſs of the blood-veſſels.*—I admit it to be generally ſo in young and growing perſons; but in habitual ſots and dram-drinkers, the arteries are ſo relaxed, and their orifices ſo wide and open mouthed, as to allow their impoveriſhed blood, now become acrid alſo, to run out at the noſe and lungs, ſo thin and watery as ſcarcely to tinge a white cambric handkerchief. So it happens in putrid fevers and ſcurvy.'

We may probably be permitted to introduce another portion of our author's work, which will, we think, ſhow ſomething more than his talent for refuting vulgar errours.

P. 104.—'*That obeſity proceeds from a natural diſpoſition, hereditary in ſome families, ſo as not to be avoided; and that high boned, ill-formed people, or ill ſhaped bullocks, are not ſo ſubject to it.*—Though well-ſhaped perſons are moſt ſuſceptible of fat; I believe, without one exception in an hundred, that it is the natural effect and production of overfeeding in ſolids or liquids, or both, nouriſhed by an indolent, lazy, lying-a-bed habit, as evidently as ever the hawking up of thick phlegm in a morning, thin lips, with a black dry liſt, a ruby noſe, and rich face, are, of hob-nobbing,

bing, and dram drinking. And as to its running through a family where the mode of living is the ſame, what elſe can be expected? Fat in the cellular membranes, by covering and ſurrounding all the muſcles, and filling up their interſtices, interrupts and impedes their activity, ſo as to induce an indolence; which indolence again contributes to beget fat. This is moſt evidently proved by its having been cured by its contraries, abſtemiouſneſs, low living, and early riſing. A gentleman communicated to me a very remarkable inſtance of this in a neighbouring clergyman in Cornwall, who after having grown ſo enormouſly fat that he was obliged to reſt, and make *three ſtages*, from his parſonage houſe in the church-yard to the reading-deſk, laid ſo ſtrict an embargo on his gullet, that in a year's time he walked twenty miles to a viſitation in perfect health; feeling no other inconvenience from the maſſive load he had got rid of, but that the ſkin of his arms never recovered itſelf, but continued looſe like the *ſleeve* of a *morning gown*. Exerciſe, in caſe of obeſity, were it uſed, in as much as it would improve the appetite, may be more likely to contribute to it than leſſen it. The above are the only effectual means; but they muſt be rigidly perſiſted in, not faſting a little now and then, by fits and ſtarts, like roman catholics on wedneſdays and fridays, without leſſening the weekly bill.'

After this, who can doubt the qualifications of the doctor for the execution of the taſk that he has impoſed upon himſelf?

ART. VIII. *The Soldier's Friend: or, the Means of Preſerving the Health of Military Men; addreſſed to the Officers of the Britiſh Army:* By William Blair, A. M. Surgeon to the Lock Hoſpital and Aſylum, and of the old Finſbury Diſpenſary. 12mo. 154 pages. Price 2s. 6d. ſewed. Longman. 1798.

USEFUL information is frequently conveyed to the public through the medium of judicious compilation, and this is the caſe in the preſent inſtance. Mr. Blair has brought together, in this little volume, many things, that are intereſting, and of much importance to the ſoldier. He has given him plain and ſimple directions in reſpect to food, drink, clothing, exerciſe, and other ſubjects connected with the military profeſſion.

A ſhort ſpecimen will ſhew the utility and object of the work:

P. 58.—'For the defence of coaſts and landing-places, it is frequently neceſſary to form a camp on levels, in the neighbourhood of the ſea, or on the low and marſhy banks of rivers. Such ſituations are always inimical to the health of troops. A man ſhould be careful not to expoſe himſelf to the air of theſe places with an empty ſtomach. If he be obliged to go out early in the morning, let him chew a little tobacco, or a piece of ginger; or he may take a ſmall glaſs of pure ſpirits, the ſalutary effects of which will be augmented by infuſing therein ſome peruvian bark, colombo root, orange-peel, tanſy, or any aromatic bitter: It is in ſuch ſituations only, that the uſe of ſpirits can be reckoned wholeſome. But even then, their good effects will be loſt on thoſe who have taken them habitually for a conſiderable time.

'Long-continued rains will produce, in ſituations naturally dry, the ſame bad conſequences that reſult from thoſe which are uſually moiſt, and of courſe the ſame precautions become requiſite to

to guard againſt them. The beſt preventive againſt the effects of temporary wetting with rain, is to ſtrip entirely; and, after having rubbed the ſkin dry, to waſh the whole ſurface of the body with pure ſpirits. This practice is ſucceſsfully uſed by the inhabitants of the Weſt India iſlands, where to be ſoaked with rain is often attended with fatal conſequences. The effects of partial wetting, ſuppoſe of the ſhoulders or legs, ought to be remedied by a partial treatment of the ſame kind; for the ſtrongeſt conſtitution is not at all times proof againſt the chilling tendency of damp clothes.

'During rainy ſeaſons, while an army is in a fixed poſition, the tents might be thatched, after the manner recommended by prince Ferdinand of Germany: And little huts above ground, might be erected for the officers. But pits ſunk under the ſurface of the earth, are always unwholeſome and damp.' A. R.

ART. IX. *One Hour's Advice, reſpecting their Health, to Perſons going out to the Iſland of Jamaica; with a Deſcription of the Iſland.* By R. Wiſe. 18mo. 70 pages. Price 1s. 6d. 1798.

THIS is a judicious ſelection, from a very excellent work; and we have a right, from experience, to ſtate our belief, that the rules here preſcribed will prove eminently ſerviceable to ſuch as are deſirous of preſerving their health, not in Jamaica only, but any country between the tropics. O.

ART. X. *Some new Experiments, with Obſervations upon Heat, clearly ſhewing the erroneous Principles of the French Theory. Alſo, a Letter to Henry Cavendiſh, Eſq. containing ſome pointed Animadverſions; with Strictures upon ſome late Chemical Papers in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and other Remarks.* By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. 156 pages. Price 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

As our author had appealed to foreign critics in a former pamphlet, we did not expect to be again called upon to offer an opinion on *his* hypotheſis; we find, however, that he ſtill perſeveres and perſiſts in the truth of his notions of heat. We have here a new batch of experiments, and a new ſeries of complaints, not leſs ſatisfactory, or leſs juſt, than thoſe which have preceded them in the different tracts of this philoſopher. The doctor has now, indeed, ventured ſomewhat further than in any of his former publications, and made *one* diſcovery, which his own writings abundantly prove to be true, it is, that 'this is an age of trifling experimenters.' After conſulting the labours of the author, no one can doubt the aſſertion. We muſt not, however, proceed, as we find ourſelves already accuſed of aiding and abetting the ſtrangulation of the doctor's favourite bantlings.

We may, perhaps, be permitted to lay a couple of paſſages, which ſhow the author's liberality and attachment to his hypotheſis, before the reader.

In a letter addreſſed to Henry Cavendiſh, eſq., whom the doctor ſeems anxious to draw into his ſquabbles, he ſays,

P. 1.—'In the year 1788, I wrote a letter to you and others upon the extreme errors and fallacy of the french ſyſtem, and

alſo upon your two experiments, the firing inflammable and pure airs, and paſſing the electric ſpark through pure and atmoſpherical airs; proving, to the ſatisfaction of candour and common ſenſe, your very erroneous concluſions from theſe experiments: which letter you have never been able to refute.—I now addreſs to you another upon the ſame ſubjects, but I do not expect more candour from you towards this letter than the former: I am ſenſible there is a moſt powerful and illiberal combination formed againſt me and my ſyſtem. But, ſir, whatſoever be the arts, influence, and conſpiracy, time will unravel the whole.

'Though this combination is ſupported by ſo numerous a body; a phalanx who flatter themſelves their names can command every thing, yet truth will and muſt prevail. If your opinions, experiments, and concluſions are juſt, then I am willing to ſtand condemned as cenſuring you unjuſtly; and in that cenſure, as being too confident of my own opinion. But I am not like you and your confederates, who ſkulk from inveſtigation. I do here ſeriouſly call upon the public to arraign us both at their tribunal, and to paſs their ſentence according to their juſtice. But, in fixing their judgment, I hope, they will carefully weigh the facts *pro* and *con*.'

And, at page 4, he tells us, that 'our aërial philoſophers ſeem to have got into the greateſt errors concerning the doctrine of combuſtion, ſuppoſing it is conducted by attraction; but combuſtion is clearly the ſeparating or breaking down the formation of bodies, and not attracting or building up new ones. Thus fire enters into the integral ſubſtance of all combuſtible bodies, which bodies are thoſe which poſſeſs the greateſt quantity of fire; therefore when thoſe bodies are deſtroyed by fire, or have their fixed fire ſet looſe as actual, the compoſition of them is entirely broken down; from two cauſes. Firſt. As the fire made an integral part of the bodies, and, ſecondly, as the free fire's great principle is repulſion: therefore, as the fire is let looſe, all the component parts of the burning body are repelled or forced from their chemical combinations by the repulſatory principle of fire; and unleſs chemiſts will introduce this great repulſatory principle of free fire into combuſtion, they never can account for the phenomena; for this great repulſion of fire is as certain an agent as chemical attraction.—Therefore our late chemical theories teaching that the air acts in combuſtion by attracting the ſuppoſed elements, carbone, inflammable air, or phlogiſton, from bodies when burning, is erroneous, as the air acts in combuſtion as the agent: it being a combuſtible body formed of fire, fixed air, and water, and its fire being ſlightly attracted to the fixed air and water, is therefore eaſily ſet looſe in the combuſtion, and then acts upon burning bodies as nature's great agent in ſetting looſe the combuſtible bodies' fire; and in reſpiration, putrefaction, and other proceſſes, this fixed fire is eaſily attracted from its union with the fixed air and water of the pure air uniting to the blood in its fixed ſtate.'

Theſe examples will ſufficiently prove, that the doctor has not yet relinquiſhed his *old* habits.

ART.

ART. XI. *A practical Eſſay on the Club-Foot, and other Diſtortions in the Legs and Feet of Children, intended to ſhew under what Circumſtances they are curable, or otherwiſe; with thirty-one Caſes that have been ſucceſsfully treated by the Method for which the Author has obtained the King's Patent, and the Specification of the Patent for that Purpoſe, as well as for curing Diſtortions of the Spine, and every other Deformity that can be remedied by mechanical Applications.* By T. Sheldrake, Truſs-maker to the Weſtminſter Hoſpital, and Mary-le-bone Infirmary. 8vo. 226 pages, and 14 plates. Price 7s. in boards. Murray and Highley. 1798.

DISTORTIONS of the feet are ſo frequent and ſo diſtreſſing, that every rational attempt to remove them deſerves to be examined with proper attention. The author of this eſſay, though not a profeſſional man, offers a mode of treatment in theſe caſes, that has many circumſtances to recommend it, and which is ſupported by the ſucceſsful reſults of different practical trials. Why ſurgeons, who are acquainted with the anatomical ſtructure of the parts, have not, by availing themſelves of mechanical ſcience, treated deformations of this and other kinds on philoſophical principles, we are not enabled to ſay; but certain it is, that they are rarely undertaken by perſons thus educated.

The author of this eſſay preſents his plan of treatment fairly to the notice of the profeſſional inquirer, and claims his regard on theſe grounds.

Pref. p. ii.—'The ſituation,' ſays he, 'in which I was bred, having given me numerous opportunities of ſeeing theſe diſeaſes, in all their varieties, and of ſeeing they were always treated in a way from which little benefit was derived, naturally directed my mind to the ſubject; and the nature of my profeſſional education and purſuits, during the laſt twenty years, having enabled me to conſider them in a way that had eſcaped the obſervation of others, and to make numerous experiments, in hopes of being able to cure them; I at laſt ſucceeded in ſome caſes, in an eminent degree. An account of theſe caſes was publiſhed ſeveral years ago; and the attention that publication excited, procured me numerous opportunities for purſuing my enquiries on this ſubject, the reſult of which will be found in the following pages.'

In a former work *, of which the preſent would ſeem to be a continuation, Mr. S. ſhowed what had been done by other practitioners with a view to remedy theſe deformities.

Pref. p. iii.—The preſent eſſay 'contains the hiſtory of ſome caſes, which were placed, with unlimited confidence, under my care, and in which I was, *therefore*, perfectly ſucceſsful. And, as I knew I muſt encounter the ſcoffs of incredulity, the doubts of ſcepticiſm, and the inſinuations of thoſe who might be envious of my ſucceſs, I had the precaution to requeſt, that they might be ſhewn to gentlemen in the profeſſion of ſurgery, whoſe knowledge, judgment, and integrity, were unqueſtionable, and who would, therefore, always aſcertain whether what I attempted was rational, and what degree of ſucceſs attended my efforts. The unbiaſſed opinions of theſe gentle-

* See our Rev. Vol. xxv, p. 34.

men are added to the hiſtory of each caſe, and will form a maſs of incontrovertible evidence to the truth of the facts.'

After deſcribing fifteen caſes, in many of which his method of management completely ſucceeded, he comes to the circumſtances that render the club-foot curable, or otherwiſe. In conſidering this part of the ſubject, he finds it neceſſary to inquire into the anatomical ſtructure of the parts concerned, and from the examination of the bones in theſe caſes of diſeaſe, he attempts to prove,

P. 87,—'That before the age of two years the individual bones of a club-foot are not diſtorted in any manner; that as far as the bones are concerned in the diſeaſe, it is only by improper combination; that after the age of two years, individual bones become deformed, according to circumſtances which vary in different caſes; but which do not, in all, render the diſeaſe incurable. I ſhall now proceed to examine the condition of the ligaments, in various ſtages of the diſeaſe, in order to diſcover what alterations muſt be produced in them, in order to effect a cure.'

The ligaments and muſcles are examined in the ſame way, and ſeveral practical deductions laid down. From the whole theſe concluſions are formed,

P. 135.—'That three diſtinct operations are requiſite to cure this deformity; firſt, to reduce the bones to their natural poſition, and natural form, if the patient's age has occaſioned any malformation to take place; ſecondly, to produce extenſion of any muſcle that has actually been contracted, or ſeems to be ſo from the poſition and conſequent inactivity of the foot; and thirdly, to keep the foot bound in its natural poſition, till thoſe muſcles which have, from the circumſtances of the diſeaſe been weak and inactive, perfectly recover their tone and power, when, and when only, the cure will be complete.

'I may likewiſe be permitted to conclude, from what has been ſaid, that every caſe of this diſeaſe may be perfectly cured, before the patient is three years old; that after that age, ſome may ſoon become incurable; but that others may remain in a condition to be cured, till the age of ten, eleven, or twelve years old, and even to much later periods of life.'

Theſe obſervations being made on that ſpecies of club-foot that occurs before birth, the author comes next to thoſe, which happen afterwards. Here he alſo offers many remarks, and gives different practical directions. We have likewiſe ſome caſes in illuſtration of the poſitions. In recent diſtortions of the knee-joints, Mr. S. tells us,

P. 174.—That 'two operations are requiſite to effect a cure, viz. to replace the bones in their natural relative poſition; and to retain them there, till the ligaments and tendons connected with the knee-joint, have recovered their natural power of ſupporting the weight of the body properly on the legs.

'In recent caſes, where the diſtortion has been brought on ſuddenly, or at leaſt, quickly, by debility, the reduction will be eaſily effected; for the ſame debilitated ſtate of the parts, which have occaſioned them to give way, will not oppoſe any obſtacle to any rational attempts to return the legs to their natural form, and then

time, with the aſſiſtance of cold baths, &c. will enable them to recover, perfectly, their natural functions. But when, from length of time the diſeaſe has exiſted, age of the patient, or any other circumſtance, the parts have become rigid or contracted, it will require conſiderable caution to reduce them to their natural poſition; but ſtill it is poſſible to do ſo.

'As the degree of relaxation requiſite to produce this diſtortion is not great, ſo the degree of rigidity or contraction neceſſary to retain it in its worſt form, is not greater than the relaxation which occaſioned it. From this view of the ſubject, and from what we know of the effects of mechanical action upon tendinous contractions, it is not too much to conclude, there are few, if any caſes, even in adults, that are abſolutely incurable: and from a knowledge that the mode of treatment I have invented may be adopted to every poſſible caſe, it would, perhaps, not be unwarrantable to conclude, that every caſe, which in its nature is not incurable, may be cured by it.'

As the real value of every diſcovery or improvement is ſhown by the practical reſult, we have little heſitation in ſaying, that if Mr. S.'s method of managing the diſtortions he has here deſcribed be ſo completely ſucceſsful as he aſſures us it is, it muſt be of much utility. A. R.

PICTURESQUE BEAUTY.

ART. XII. *Eſſays on the Pictureſque, as compared with the Sublime and Beautiful; and, on the Uſe of ſtudying Pictures, for the Purpoſe of improving real Landſcape.* By Uvedale Price, Eſq. Vol. II. 8vo. 460 pages. Price 6s. boards. Hereford, Walker; London, Robſon. 1798.

IN the preſent volume are three eſſays: the ſubject of the firſt, is *artificial water*; of the ſecond, *decorations*; of the third, *architecture* and *buildings*. When the former part of this work made it's appearance ſome years ago, we paid that attention to Mr. Price's theory, which it's novelty invited, and which it's ingenuity well merited: if our readers will look back to the twentieth volume of our Review, page 259, &c., they will perceive what ideas our author attaches to the term pictureſque, and what are it's peculiar characters, in contradiſtinction to the peculiar characters both of the ſublime and of the beautiful.

Although we acknowledge a general coincidence with Mr. P., we did not conceive his ideas on the ſubject of pictureſqueneſs to be invariably correct, and in our examination of them, took the liberty of expreſſing an occaſional diſſent; not, however, without offering the reaſons on which it was founded. In the eſſays at preſent before us, Mr. P. has ſtill farther illuſtrated his theory, and exhibited the application of it's principles to 'all the natural beauties and varieties of objects near the eye, which are claſſed by painters under the title of *fore-ground*.'

The *firſt* eſſay treats on artificial water; and on the method in which pictureſque banks may be practically formed. In order to

gain a juſt idea of the beſt manner to form the banks of artificial water, Mr. P. very properly ſpeculates on the proceſs of their formation among natural lakes and rivers; for, ſays he, 'I ſuppoſe that the moſt admired parts of them are the proper objects of imitation.' After having ſtated, therefore, in what manner natural lakes may, from natural cauſes, have acquired thoſe varieties of character, which conſtitute the pictureſque, he proceeds to ſhow how cauſes may be ſo prepared by art, as to produce ſimilar effects; how the banks of water may be ſo managed, that 'time and accident may produce in them thoſe varieties and breaks, which, when properly accompanied, are ſo much admired by painters.' The inſtructions, which Mr. P. offers on this ſubject to improvers, engage him in a detail, of which any abbreviation would be dry and unintereſting.

In baniſhing the tameneſs and monotony of Mr. Brown's ſchool, and ſubſtituting a mode of landſcape-gardening, the eſſence of which is a richneſs of effect, which in many caſes muſt be entirely artificial, an obvious objection ariſes, namely, that the awkward attempts at ſuch an arrangement of materials, as may produce the pictureſque, will often occaſion ſuch fantaſtic work, as may force us to regret even the preſent monotony.

P. 46.—'I have no doubt,' ſays Mr. P., in anticipating this objection, 'that very diverting performances in roots, ſtones and rock-work, would be produced, and that alone I ſhould reckon as no little gain: for who would not prefer an abſurd, but laughable farce, to a flat inſipid piece of five acts? There is, however, another very eſſential difference. In a made river there is ſuch an incorrigible dulneſs, that unleſs the banks themſelves be totally altered, the moſt judicious planting will not entirely get the better of it: but let the moſt whimſical improver make banks with roots, ſtones, rocks, grottos, caverns, of every odd and fantaſtic form, even theſe, by means of trees, buſhes, trailing plants, and of vegetation in general, may in a ſhort time have their abſurdities in a great degree diſguiſed, and ſtill under that diſguiſe, be the cauſe of many varied and ſtriking effects: how much more ſo, if the ſame materials were diſpoſed by a ſkilful artiſt!'

The great importance of attending to the objects immediately around the water is obvious: 'wherever there is any appearance of it in a landſcape, whether real or painted, to that part the eye is irreſiſtibly carried, and to that it always returns *.' It's relative poſition,

* In the fanciful, perhaps too fanciful ſimile which occurs in the following lines, Mr. Southey has conveyed a very ſtriking idea of the power which water has of faſcinating the attention; the maid of Orleans is returning from her midnight viſit to the tent of Burgundy:

"——————Thus ſhe ſpake,
Then iſſued forth, and bounding on her ſteed
Sped o'er the plain. Dark on the upland bank
The hedge-row trees diſtinct and colourleſs,

Roſe

ſition, therefore, to the ſurrounding ſcenery is of conſequence, particularly where the ſize of it is conſiderable, and the eye has an extenſive range of country to ſurvey: it ſhould be ſo placed, that the attention may be inſenſibly led by it to thoſe parts of the landſcape, which are moſt worthy of notice, and diverted from others, the intrinſic uglineſs or unintereſting arrangement of which may in ſome meaſure deform the ſcene. Some excellent obſervations occur on the effect of tints, thoſe of ſtone particularly, and of the ſoil in broken ground; nothing harmoniſes more completely with other objects, and without deſtroying that unity of effect, which is abſolutely eſſential, imparts ſo varied, as well as ſo mellow and ſo rich a character. Mr. P. gives the following reaſon for his opinion, that the character of a lake, and not that of a river, ſhould in moſt caſes be the object of imitation:

P. 88.—'A lake admits of bays and inlets in every direction; and where the ſcene is confined, every ſource of variety ſhould be ſought after. A lake is a whole, and that whole, upon a ſmaller ſcale, may be completely imitated: but of a river, only one or two reaches can be imitated; and then it muſt ſtop. Now one of the charms of a river, beſides the real beauty of each particular ſcene, is the idea of continuance, of ſucceſſion; that idea, that hope and expectation, give an intereſt to the ſcenery of a river conſidered generally, though many parts taken ſingly may be unintereſting. Bays, inlets, and promontories form a principal beauty in lakes, but they would counteract that idea of continued motion and progreſs, with which continuity of banks ſo well accords; and even where, for a certain ſpace, a river becomes ſtagnant, (the only part which art can properly imitate) ſtill we retain the knowledge, and in ſome degree, perceive the effect of its real progreſſion. But where we know that no motion, no progreſſion, exiſt in any part, it ſurely is right to compenſate the want of thoſe qualities, by others which we can command, and which are ſo much in uniſon with the character of ſtill water; for thoſe lakes which are moſt admired by painters, are remarkable for the variety and intricacy of their ſhores.'

To this reaſon for preferring lakes, as the ſubject of imitation, to rivers, it is added, that *iſlands*, though common to ſome rivers, ſeem on the whole more ſuited to the character of lakes, where they may be introduced with leſs appearance of art, and conſequently with happier effect. This eſſay concludes with ſome valuable hints on the forming of iſlands, the beſt ſituation for them, and the trees moſt proper for planting on them.

Decorations near the houſe form the *ſecond* eſſay. Mr. P. reprobates the ſyſtem of affected ſimplicity, in laying out the grounds immediately next the houſe, or what may properly be called the garden, with no leſs ſeverity than he does the inſipid ſurface of the

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Roſe o'er the grey horiſon, *and the Loire*
Form'd in its winding way iſlands of light
Amid the ſhadowy vale, when now ſhe reach'd
The walls of Orleans.——"

Joan of Arc. Vol. 11, p. 209, 2d edit.

modern artificial landſcape. The garden is preciſely the ſpot where rich and various embelliſhment, corrected indeed by ſimplicity, ought to be diſplayed.

P. 134.—'Where architecture, even of the ſimpleſt kind, is employed in the dwellings of man, art muſt be manifeſt; and all artificial objects may certainly admit, and in many inſtances require, the accompaniments of art; for to go at once from art, to ſimple unadorned nature, is too ſudden a tranſition, and wants that ſort of gradation and congruity, which, except in particular caſes, is ſo neceſſary in all that is to pleaſe the eye and the mind. Many years are elapſed ſince I was in Italy, but the impreſſion which the gardens of ſome of the villas near Rome made upon me, is by no means effaced; though I could have wiſhed to have renewed it, before I entered upon this ſubject. I remember the rich and magnificent effects of baluſtrades, fountains, marble baſons, and ſtatues, blocks of ancient ruins, with remains of ſculpture, the whole mixed with pines and cypreſſes. I remember alſo their effect, both as an accompaniment to the architecture, and as a foreground to the diſtance.'

It is pleaſing to notice a coincidence of opinion between two perſons of cultivated uncorrupted taſte, on a ſubject particularly, where the principles of taſte can alone be referred to. Dr. Aikin, in a letter to his ſon, had the hardihood to attempt with his ſolitary hand to ſtem the tide of faſhion; we muſt be allowed to copy a paragraph from his letter on ornamental gardening *, in order to ſhow the ſimilarity, the identity of his ideas on this ſubject with thoſe of Mr. P., and their mutual predilection for the old and now obſolete diſplay of ſymmetry and magnificence in the decorations of a garden:

"Formerly," ſays Dr. A., "the pleaſure garden was always conſidered as an *appendage* to the houſe; its plan and decorations were therefore a ſubordinate branch of *architecture*. That it ſhould have been ſo regarded, was very natural. To enjoy the pleaſures of a garden to advantage, it was neceſſary that they ſhould be near. Its fragrance was received into the apartments of the houſe; its walks invited even the indolent to ſaunter in the ſun or repoſe under the ſhade; and its gay forms and colours feaſted the eye with variety of beauty within the ſphere of diſtinct viſion. Its flights of ſteps, walls, porticoes, and terraces, gave the architect an opportunity of gradually letting down the maſſy height of his main edifice, and ſhading off ſtone into verdure. That ſomething of this kind is wanted by the eye, will, I think, be acknowledged by every unprejudiced obſerver at the firſt view of a modern manſion, riſing unſuſtained from the midſt of a naked lawn."

Dr. Aikin proceeds to ſhow how the decorations of the old french and italian gardens might probably have been imitated from the rude ſketches, which nature herſelf afforded; "thus a woodbine running from tree to tree, and encircling the tops of buſhes, formed a ſort of flowering canopy, which agreeably ſheltered the wanderer from ſun and ſhowers. Art caught the idea, and faſhioned an *arbour*

* Aikin's Letters to his Son. Letter xv.

or

or *treillage.*"——"Ornamental buildings, ſtatues, urns, and vaſes intermixed with ſcenes of verdure and ſolitude, pleaſed by the contraſt they afforded to ſimilar works of art in the ſtreets and ſquares of a city. A beautiful plant ſhooting from the midſt of rich carving, over which it threw its eaſy foliage, had ſurely as good a right to admiration as the imitation of it in a corinthian capital." A portion of this letter, more particularly in point, we extracted on a former occaſion, [ſee Anal. Rev. Vol. XVIII, p. 140,] where a ſimilar coincidence is obſervable in the opinions of Dr. Aikin and Mr. P. on the ſubject of clumps and avenues.

Mr. P. has drawn no mean argument in favour of the old italian gardens, from the period in which many of them were made—the moſt flouriſhing period of painting—and from the great probability, that ſome of the moſt celebrated painters, many of whom were alſo architects, were employed in their embelliſhment. The ſuperiour excellence, however, of the ancient ſtyle of gardening is not defended on authority alone; Mr. P. has pointed out with much ability the principles, on which that excellence is founded; with admirable ingenuity he has applied his general theory of the pictureſque to the ornamental part of an old garden, and made each throw additional light on the other.

The *third* eſſay treats on *architecture* and *buildings*, but Mr. P.'s remarks are chiefly confined to their effect as connected with ſcenery: he makes, therefore, a judicious diſtinction between architecture in towns, 'where it may be ſaid to be principal and independent;' where ſcarcely any thing but the front is ſeen; where the ſtations to which the ſpectator is confined are few, and thoſe not being diſtant, his attention is excluſively directed to the building; and architecture in the country, where it is 'in ſome degree ſubordinate and dependent on ſurrounding objects;' and where it ſhould, therefore, harmonize with the general landſcape of which it forms a part. Far from undervaluing the profeſſion of an architect, therefore, it is obvious, that our author is endeavouring to ennoble it, by ſhowing how important it is, that the architect of buildings in the 'country ſhould be *architetto-pittore*; for indeed he ought not only to have the mind,' ſays he, 'but the hand of a painter; not only to be acquainted with the principles, but, as far as deſign goes, with the practice of landſcape-painting.'

The ſame baldneſs and monotony, which are the principal defects of modern landſcape-gardening, characteriſe the greater number of modern buildings: one cauſe of the forlorn and naked appearance of our country houſes is the ſolicitous concealment of it's offices, all of which, if judiciouſly diſtributed, would by their various heights, and different projections, produce a diverſity of light and ſhadow, and that intricacy of outline, which according to it's accompaniments may add either to the character of pictureſqueneſs or grandeur in the building.

Agreeing with Mr. Burke, that maſſiveneſs is a powerful cauſe of grandeur, Mr. P. vindicates the architecture of Blenheim, a building, which has long laboured under the galling reproach of heavineſs. If our readers have as high an idea as we have of the genius and

and the taſte of Vanbrugh, they will not be diſpleaſed with the following extract:

P. 251.—' Sir Joſhua Reynolds is, I believe, the firſt who has done juſtice to the architecture of Vanbrugh, by ſhewing that it was not a mere fantaſtic ſtyle, without any other object than that of ſingularity, but that he worked on the principles of painting, and has produced the moſt painter-like effects. It is very poſſible that the ridicule thrown on Vanbrugh's buildings, by ſome of the wittieſt men of the age he lived in, though not the beſt judges of art, may in no ſlight degree have prevented his excellencies from being properly attended to: for what has been the ſubject of ridicule, (and of ſuch exquiſite ridicule) will ſeldom become the object of ſtudy, or imitation. It appears to me that at Blenheim, Vanbrugh conceived and executed a very bold and difficult deſign: that of uniting in one building, the beauty and magnificence of grecian architecture, the pictureſqueneſs of the gothic, and the maſſive grandeur of a caſtle; and that in ſpite of the many faults with which he is very juſtly reproached, he has formed, in a ſtyle truly his own, a well-combined whole, a manſion worthy of a great prince, and warrior. His firſt point ſeems to have been maſſiveneſs, as the foundation of grandeur. Then, to prevent that maſs from being a lump, he has made various bold projections of various heights, which from different points ſerve as foregrounds to the main building. And, laſtly, having probably been ſtruck with the variety of outline againſt the ſky, in many gothic and other ancient buildings, he has raiſed, on the top of that part, where the ſlanting roof begins in many houſes of the italian ſtyle, a number of decorations of various characters. Theſe, if not new in themſelves, have at leaſt been applied and combined by him in a new and peculiar manner; and the union of them gives a ſurpriſing ſplendour and magnificence, as well as variety, to the ſummit of that princely edifice *. There is a point on the oppoſite ſide of the lake, whence it is ſeen in full glory, and with its happieſt accompaniments. The houſe, the lake, and the rich bank of the garden, may be ſo grouped with ſome of the trees that ſtand near the water, and hang over it, and ſo framed amidſt their ſtems and branches, as to ex-

' * I do not know whether Vanbrugh ever was in Italy, or whether there ever was a print of the houſe of Nicolò di Rienzo before that by Piraneſi, in his views of Rome †: but ſuppoſing him to have ſeen either the houſe itſelf, or a print of it, I ſhould not be ſurpriſed if it had ſuggeſted to him the idea of the open arches on the top of Blenheim. The houſe of Rienzo (by Piraneſi's account) was built out of the ruins of ſome ancient edifices from which the entablature was problably taken; immediately over that entablature (as at Blenheim) are raiſed ſome open arches, which terminate the whole; a mode of finiſhing the ſummit, which I have ſeldom obſerved in other buildings. Theſe arches, however, are quite ſimple, like thoſe of an aqueduct; whereas the arches at Blenheim are turned to different points, and, with their piers, cluſter together like ſome of the old chimnies, and thence acquire that richneſs which Vanbrugh aimed at.'

' † Tom. 1. Tavola 21.'

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clude all but the choiceſt objects; and whoever catches that view towards the cloſe of the evening, when the ſun ſtrikes on the golden balls, and pours his beams through the open parts, gilding every rich and brilliant ornament, will think he ſees ſome enchanted palace. But let thoſe decorations be changed for the ſummit of any of the moſt celebrated houſes built ſince the time of Vanbrugh, ſuch as Fonthill, or Keddleſtone—in which (if I may truſt to my recollection, and to the deſigns) the edge of a ſlanting roof, with ſcarcely any other break but that of detached chimnies, forms the outline againſt the ſky—and, however the ſun might illuminate ſuch a ſummit, the ſpectator would no longer think of Alcina or Armida.'

From this view of Blenheim, and the ſtriking effect produced by the variety of it's outline againſt the ſky, Mr. P. naturally expreſſes his ſurpriſe and regret at the little attention which is paid to the *ſummits* of houſes in the country; the effect of decorations in general, of marked diviſions, ſtrong lines, and abrupt projections, is illuſtrated by a reference to the varied outline of rocks; the form and character of which bear, of any thing in nature, the cloſeſt analogy to buildings.

Mr. P. enters at large into the diſtinct character of the picturesque in buildings, and applies his principles to the ruins of greek and roman buildings, of abbeys, of caſtles, of old manſion houſes, of cottages, mills, and to *habitable* buildings: he ſketches the character of the roman, florentine, and venetian ſchools, and examines the architecture and buildings in the pictures of the great hiſtorical painters. After touching on various ſubjects, and expatiating particularly on the form and conſtruction of bridges, Mr. P. concludes this elegant and ingenious work with an eulogy on the art of painting, and a warm recommendation, as well to architects as improvers, of the ſtudy of pictures; the uſe of which, for the purpoſe of improving real landſcape, he has omitted no poſſible opportunity of inculcating.

MUSIC.

ART. XIII.—*Melody—the Soul of Muſic: an Eſſay towards the Improvement of the Muſical Art: with an Appendix, containing Account of an Invention.* 8vo. 82 pages. Glaſgow, printed in the Courier Office. 1798.

THIS eſſay is divided into three parts: the firſt contains the 'Theory of Melody, it's uſe and corruption;' in the ſecond part is given a 'Sketch of Harmony, it's uſe and miſapplication;' and in the third, 'Hints, with a view to improvement, drawn from the preceding parts.'

The author of theſe pages conceives the preſent ſtyle of compoſition to be corrupt, the modern harmony to be mechanical, and from it's complexity, rather calculated to diſplay the ſcience of the compoſer and the execution of the performer, than to make that forcible and permanent appeal to the feelings of our audience, and excite in the mind thoſe various emotions of joy, or ſorrow, pity, courage, or devotion, which can alone give dignity, or uſefulneſs to the ſcience. Although amateurs of muſic, we do not profeſs ourſelves to be ſufficiently acquainted with it's fundamental principles to enter on the merits of this elegant little eſſay with minuteneſs; without preſumption,

tion, however, we may perhaps be permitted to ſay, that, on liſtening to ſome modern ſymphonies and concertoes, although we have felt the force of our author's objection againſt them, namely, the ſolicitous diſplay of the compoſer's ſcience, and the performer's talents; yet, on many occaſions, we have thought the air leſs ſhrouded, the melody leſs loſt in accompaniments, than in pieces of the old ſchool. We particularly refer to the modern compoſitions of Haydn and Pleyel, who, by the frequent uſe of ſemitones, and the judicious introduction of thoſe delicate *lights* and *ſhades* of muſic, if the expreſſion be allowable, the pianoes and the fortes have produced ſome of the moſt touching melodies imaginable; at the ſame time we agree with our author, that the ſymphonies of Haydn and Pleyel are by no means invariably exempt from thoſe falſe refinements, which he ſo ſeverely cenſures. Surely our author's love of ſimplicity carries him too far: ſimple melody, however pathetic, muſt, in time, become inſipid: is ſimplicity the leading feature in Handel's compoſitions? are they not, many of them, intricate, and moſt richly harmonized? If we may illuſtrate, where perhaps we ought to argue, as the eye cannot long reſt with pleaſure or complacency on the ſofteſt verdure, or ſurvey with untried repetition the moſt peaceful valley, from which all decoration, all intricacy is baniſhed; ſo the ear may become ſatiated with the ſweeteſt and moſt tender melody, if all the rich and varied embelliſhments of harmony be ſolicitouſly excluded.

We ſhall make a ſhort extract from the third part.

P. 67.—'If the expreſſion of the paſſions, and affections of the mind, is to be conſidered as the chief excellence of muſic, the improvement of that expreſſion muſt be allowed to be highly deſerving of attention. It may be making one ſtep to point out a method by which conſiſtency of expreſſion would be promoted. Might it not be uſeful, in this view, to fix upon ſome diſtinguiſhing claſſes or diviſions of that pathetic expreſſion? according to which muſical pieces might be compoſed: ſuch as, for example:

'1. Bold, courageous, magnanimous;
'2. Merry, joyous;
'3. Calm, cheerful, contented;
'4. Tender, plaintive, compaſſionate;
'5. Solemn, devotional.

'In ſuch pieces, it ought to be the ſtudy of the compoſer to find out and uſe ſuch ſtrains as will moſt forcibly excite thoſe affections of the mind to which the claſs may refer; and to admit nothing, however ſanctioned by cuſtom, that has a tendency to deſtroy or confound the expreſſion.

'It is, indeed, true that the expreſſion of muſic is of a general kind, and that the ſame claſs will include ſeveral affections. Theſe differ, however, more as to their objects than their nature, as kindneſs aſſumes the different names of good-will, friendſhip, or compaſſion, according to the ſituation of its objects. It is alſo true, that the expreſſion of the paſſions is frequently blended in muſic, and that, of a great many compoſitions, the expreſſion is wholly uncertain. But this no more proves it to be altogether ambiguous, and incapable of being diſtinguiſhed, than the blending of colours in the rays of light pre-

vents

vents green, red or blue, in other caſes, from being diſtinctly diſplayed to the eye. Dr. Beattie, in one part of his eſſay on poetry and muſic, ſeems to think melody incapable, without the aſſiſtance of poetry, of fixing any particular expreſſion on the mind; but he muſt only mean, that it is more general without poetry, than with it: for he ſays, in another part of his eſſay, "Nor can it be denied, that inſtrumental muſic may both quicken our ſenſibility and give a direction to it; that it may both prepare the mind for being affected, and determine it to one ſet of affections rather than another; to melancholy, for inſtance, rather than merriment, compoſure rather than agitation, devotion rather than levity."

'Though poetry furniſhes muſic with particular ſentiments and images, it cannot be therefore inferred, that muſic has not an expreſſion ſuited to affect the mind, though of a general kind; and that this expreſſion may not be ſeparated into claſſes, according to the affections which it is calculated to produce.

'In conſequence of this ſeparation, gradual improvement, in every kind, might be expected. Excellence and progreſſive advances, in any art, depend much upon ſucceſſive efforts of genius in the ſame direction; which is promoted by the diviſion, into various branches, that gradually takes place in the progreſs of arts both liberal and mechanical. Accordingly, improvement, by degrees, might be expected, in expreſſive melody. Compoſers would be led to ſtudy chiefly that kind in which their genius excelled. A few indeed, like Shakeſpear, may be equally ſucceſsful in exciting the ſad or mirthful emotions; but in general it will be found, that they can expreſs with moſt lively feeling ſome particular kind. In this reſpect much may depend upon the natural diſpoſition and habits. He who is of a lively cheerful temper may ſucceed beſt in the notes of joy; and he who is of a ſedate and thoughtful turn in the ſolemn and plaintive ſtrains.'

The appendix contains the account of an invention of the author: it occurred to him, 'that, by adding, to the preſent ſtrings of the violin, doubles tuned an octave below; and by placing the old and new ſtrings ſo cloſe as to be acted on together by the fingers and the bow, the tone of the inſtrument would be enriched, and an effect be produced ſimilar to baſs and treble voices ſinging together the ſame air.' The experiment was tried, and though it was attended with ſome inconveniences, which the author did not foreſee, he is of opinion, that they are by no means inſuperable. 'Should this kind of inſtrument ever come into uſe, it might be called with propriety the OCTAVE VIOLIN.'

A. N.

BOTANY. NATURAL HISTORY. GARDENING.

ART. XIV. *Botanical Dialogues, between Hortenſia and her Four Children Charles, Harriet, Juliet and Henry, deſigned for the Uſe of Schools.* By a Lady. 8vo. 335 pages. 15 plates. Price 7s. 6d. boards. Johnſon.

THIS work, introduced to the public under the patronage of ſir Brooke Boothby and Dr. Darwin*, merits a diſtinguiſhed place in the claſs

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* The following letter, addreſſed to the author, is preſixed to the work.

'Dear

claſs of introductory publications to the ſcience of botany, and, with the gentlemen above mentioned, we think it ſo complete an elementary work, that not only the youth of both ſexes, but adults alſo, will conſider themſelves much indebted to the fair writer for her ingenious labours.

The work is divided into two parts. The firſt conſiſts of five dialogues, in which Hortenſia explains to her pupils the grammar of botany, as it may be called, or the rudiments of the linnean ſyſtem. In the ſecond part ſhe proceeds upon the practical part; that is, to teach them, by exhibiting the characteriſtic diſtinctions of the different genera, how to refer any individual plant to it's proper place in the ſyſtem. We think more ſhould have been ſaid of the natural claſſes.

The whole is written in a neat, eaſy, and familiar ſtyle. Several obſervations, that are interſperſed, diſplay an extenſive acquaintance with many other branches of natural hiſtory. We ſhould be happy to ſee the ſame pen employed upon a ſubject intimately connected with that of the preſent volume, the phyſiology and economy of plants.

The following extract contains ſome pertinent obſervations upon the language of botany.

P. 5.—'*Harriet.* Charles will have the advantage of us as he underſtands latin.

'*Hortenſia.* In ſome things he may; but the language of botany may be learnt without any ſuch aſſiſtance, and perhaps more readily by not being confuſed with a knowledge of the more common ſignification of thoſe words which Linneus has appropriated to this ſcience: for inſtance, Charles will know that calyx means cup; but that will not aſſiſt him in the various ſpecies of calyxes which he will have to retain in his memory: the common meaning of words is not ſufficiently preciſe for the purpoſe of ſcience, and cup and calyx require equal explanation, when appropriated to a particular part of a flower. The works of Linneus are now tranſlated; botany has a language peculiar to itſelf; that language is, I think, ſomewhat leſs difficult to learn than any other language; and when learnt, introduces us to ſo delightful a ſtudy, that had I found ten-fold the difficulty that I did find in acquiring it, I ſhould think that I had ſpent my time well.' T. H.

'Dear Madam, '*Derby, Aug.* 24, 1795

'According to your deſire, ſir Brooke Boothby and myſelf have been agreeably buſied for many days in reading and conſidering your Botanical Dialogues for Children; and much admire your addreſs in ſo accurately explaining a difficult ſcience in an eaſy and familiar manner, adapted to the capacities of thoſe, for whom you profeſſedly write; and at the ſame time making it a complete elementary ſyſtem for the inſtruction of thoſe of more advanced life, who wiſh to enter upon this entertaining, though intricate ſtudy. We think, therefore, that not only the youth of both ſexes, but the adults alſo, will be much indebted to your ingenious labours, which we hope you will ſoon give to the public.

We beg leave to ſubſcribe ourſelves, with true regard,

Dear madam, your obedient ſervants,

BR. BOOTHBY. E. DARWIN.'

ART. XV. *A new Plan for ſpeedily increaſing the Number of Bee-Hives in Scotland; and which may be extended with equal Succeſs to England, Ireland, America, or any other Part of the World capable of producing Flowers.* By James Bonner, Bee Maſter, Author of Practical Warping made eaſy, &c. 8vo. 258 pages. Price 4s 6d. in boards. Edinburgh, Creech; London, Kay. 1795.

FROM the great attention lately beſtowed by ſeveral reſpectable philoſophers on the natural hiſtory of the bee, conſiderable improvement in the practical management of that valuable inſect might be expected to follow. The moſt important objects of improvement are an increaſe of the number of hives, and the beſt method of obtaining the honey in the pureſt ſtate, and with the leaſt poſſible cruelty, or deſtruction of the bees. The former of theſe is the profeſſed aim of Mr. B.'s treatiſe, which, he informs us, contains the reſult of nearly thirty years experience. Though he does not propoſe to enter deeply into the nature, generation, and properties of bees, upon which he ſays he could write a thouſand pages without exhauſting his thoughts, he yet allots three chapters of his work to a deſcription of the queen, the drone, and the working bee. Of Schirach's doctrine reſpecting the proceſs of generation, and the original nature of the queen, he is a decided ſupporter, but does not approve of forming *artificial ſwarms*; though the german naturaliſt himſelf ſeems to conſider that as the moſt valuable fruit of his diſcoveries. Straw hives, on the common conſtruction, are what Mr. B. has always made uſe of for himſelf; and he does not ſpeak with much approbation of colonies, or any other deviation from the uſual form. Poſſeſſed indeed, like the elder Wildman, of much addreſs and dexterity, he neither feels the want, nor perceives the value, of any ſubſidiary means; but it ought never to be forgotten, that in all operations to be performed by every body, nothing, if poſſible, ought to depend on the ſkill or dexterity of the operator, and that every contrivance, tending to ſimplify and facilitate the proceſs, is valuable as it ſerves to enſure it's ultimate ſucceſs. The directions given in this work for the general management of bees, though ſomewhat verboſe, and not poſſeſſed of much novelty for the curious, are judicious, and will doubtleſs prove uſeful to thoſe intereſted in the ſubject; and though we can never expect to ſee the plan realized to the extent of the author's ſanguine hopes, yet it is certainly an ingenious and laudable attempt, to direct the attention of the community to a valuable object of rural economy; and we are glad to underſtand, that ſeveral gentlemen of landed property have adopted Mr. B.'s ideas, and appointed him ſuperintendent of their apiaries.

ART. XVI. *The ancient Bee-Maſter's Farewell; or full and plain Directions for the Management of Bees to the greateſt Advantage; diſcloſing further Improvements of the Hives, Boxes, and other Inſtruments, to facilitate the Operations; eſpecially that of ſeparating double and treble Hives or Boxes, with Certainty and Safety, without injuring the Bees; interſperſed with new but important Obſervations: The Whole ſtudiouſly adapted to general Uſe; with an appropriate Method for the curious. Alſo brief Remarks on Schirach, and other diſtinguiſhed Apiators on the Continent. Deduced from a Series of Experiments during thirty Years. Illuſtrated*

Illuſtrated with Plates. By John Keys, of Bee-Hall, near Pembroke. 8vo. 273 pages. Price 5s. in bds. Robinſons. 1796.

ANOTHER practical treatiſe on the ſame ſubject by a veteran of thirty years experience. Mr. K. ſeems fully aware of the juſtice of our obſervation in the preceding article, and is of opinion, that the improvements hitherto projected in the management of bees have made little or no progreſs among the lower claſſes in the country, from their being too operoſe and expenſive. The new hive, which he propoſes to introduce, will, he is confident from long experience, be liable to no ſuch objection, being well adapted to the natural habit of the bees, convenient for removing part of the honey, and eaſily managed by any cultivator. It conſiſts of two or three ſtories or diviſions placed over each other, and ſeparated by a floor of bars at certain diſtances, to prevent a continuation of the combs. But for further particulars we muſt refer to the work itſelf, where ample and perſpicuous directions are laid down for the conſtruction and uſe of the hive, and the manner of performing the various operations recommended; as well as much uſeful inſtruction in every branch of the practical culture of the bee. Mr. K. indeed aſſures us, that every thing of real utility or ſervice, that has hitherto appeared, is comprized in his book, as he has conſulted every writer of note on the ſubject, both foreign and domeſtic, and at the ſame time admitted nothing, till it had obtained the ſanction of his own experience. This however muſt be taken with ſome grains of allowance, for a very valuable work, entitled Nouvelles Obſervations ſur les Abeilles, par F. Hubert, was publiſhed at Geneva in the year 1792, and was noticed ſoon after in our article of foreign literary intelligence, (ſee Anal. Rev., vol. xxii, p. 219), with which he ſeems totally unacquainted. This work was ſpeedily tranſlated into german by Riems, and received the higheſt encomiums from the late Mr. Bonnet, than whom none knew better to appreciate it's merits. But beſide the numerous and intereſting diſcoveries, with which it enriches the hiſtory of bees, it is particularly worthy of Mr. K.'s attention, as it deſcribes a hive conſtructed on a principle entirely different from his, and which removes the difficulties hitherto attendant on the production of *artificial* ſwarms. A. C.

ART. XVII. *An Introduction to the Knowledge and Practice of Gardening.* By Charles Marſhall, Vicar of Brixworth, Northamptonſhire. Second Edition, conſiderably enlarged and improved. 12mo. 408 pages. Price 4s. 6d. bds. Rivingtons. 1798.

THIS is one of the moſt complete and ſcientific works on the ſubject, that we remember to have ſeen: it is evidently the production of a man of taſte and talent: it treats on a great variety of ſubjects, as well remotely as immediately connected with horticulture, and is a work, both from it's nature and execution, which every country gentleman ought to have in his poſſeſſion.

ART. XVIII. *The Scotch Forcing Gardener: being a compendious Treatiſe on the Forcing of Aſparagus, Cucumbers, Cherries, Grapes, Melons, Muſhrooms, Nectarines, Peaches, Pine Apples, and Strawberries. Together with Inſtructions on the Management of the Green-Houſe, Hot Walls, &c. Illuſtrated with five Copper-plates; containing ten different Deſigns of Hot-Houſes, Hot-Walls, &c. on the newe*ſt

neweſt and moſt improved Conſtructions. With an Appendix; containing Hints on the Making of Fruit-Tree Borders; Planting and Training Fruit Trees againſt Walls, Eſpaliers, &c.—Alſo, Hints on the Depth and Nature of Garden Land; Manures, and their Application; Culture and Rotation of Crops, &c. By Walter Nicol, late Gardener at Wemyſs Caſtle. 8vo. 200 pa. and 5 plates. Pr. 8s. in bds. Edinburgh, the Author; London, Scatcherd. 1797.

THE advantage of plain practical directions on the nature of forcing vegetables muſt be extremely evident to every one converſant with the buſineſs of gardening. The want of a work of this kind induced Mr. N., about eight years ago, to begin the preſent undertaking, ſince which period, he tells us, he has kept notes and memoranda of various occurrences in the different branches of 'forcing, making of fruit-tree borders, planting and training of wall-trees, &c.'

In Mr. N.'s 'Forcing Gardener' we indeed find ſome uſeful and judicious rules and obſervations, but there are many others, that by no means deſerve the ſame commendation; a few of which we ſhall notice as we proceed in the examination of his performance. We muſt, however, firſt acquaint the reader with the grounds of his claims.

'Having had,' ſays he, pref. P. 1, 'from the above-mentioned period, the direction of rearing and bringing to maturity a new garden and hot-houſes, and that too amongſt the firſt in the kingdom; and my labours having been attended with general ſucceſs; I flatter myſelf, that what is contained in the following ſheets will be found uſeful to ſome, and inſtructive to many of my readers: the more eſpecially, as they will find nothing advanced therein which has not come within the compaſs of my own practice and obſervation.'

Of many of the new ſchemes of this gardener we are inclined to think favourable, and have little doubt, but that they will be found advantageous in different ſituations, though we are fearful that ſome of them are much too expenſive for general uſe.

We ſhall lay before the reader the author's *effectual remedy* for the deſtruction 'of the caterpillar and grub, which have given him more trouble than any ſpecies of inſect whatever.' It is this.

P. 34.—'Take of ſoft ſoap, two pounds; flowers of ſulphur, two pounds; leaf, or roll tobacco, one pound; nux vomica, two ounces; and oil of turpentine, an engliſh gill: boil them all together in eight engliſh gallons of ſoft or river water to ſix; and ſet it aſide for uſe.

'Any time in winter, at leaſt a conſiderable time before the trees begin to vegetate, let them be all untied or unnailed from the trellis or wall; bruſh every part of the branches and buds clean with a ſoft bruſh, ſuch as is uſed for painting: make the liquor milk warm; and, with a ſponge, carefully anoint every part of the tree, trellis, &c. Dreſs the trees neatly to the trellis again; but uſe none of the old ties or ſhreds: and let this operation be repeated every winter * without reſerve. The firſt ſummer

'* This precaution is neceſſary, theſe inſects being evidently blown by a fly in ſummer.'

after anointing there may a few appear, whoſe eggs have, by being concealed, eſcaped the action of the liquor, which muſt be picked off, to prevent their breeding; but, if any, there will be very few, as it is of the moſt penetrating nature.

'This liquor muſt on no account be uſed in ſummer, as it inſtantly deſtroys the foliage; the fatal effects of which myſelf once experienced, through inadvertency. Fruit trees of all kinds ſhould be anointed with this liquor every year; as it is equally deſtructive of every inſect, and their eggs, which inſeſt them: but ſurely none, who have the health and beauty of their hot-houſes at heart, after being convinced of its efficacy, will be ſo neglectful of their own intereſt, as to omit the doing of it.'

The manner of cultivation here propoſed for the melon is pretty much that which has been generally followed. An obſervation or two on the ſeed deſerve attention.

P. 71.—'Melon ſeed ought to be perfectly ripened before ſowing, by being kept in a very dry place, or worn in the pocket; but it is ſafeſt not to ſow it till a year old, and it will keep freſh for ſeven or eight. If the ſeed is not perfectly ripened, and ſaved from fruit which is alſo ſo, the plants produced by it will not be fruitful, running much to vines and male-bloom; and any fruit which may be ſhown are apt to drop away.'

In the cultivation of peaches our author objects, and we believe juſtly, to ſome ſorts of compartments, P. 79. 'Theſe are, oiled paper frames, and frames placed againſt flued walls, without front flues. I object,' ſays he, 'to the firſt, on account of its darkneſs, and incapability of admitting the rays of light, and free air; both of which are ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary to the health and vigour of the trees:—to the ſecond, becauſe the front is the moſt valuable flue in any houſe; both on account of the ſaving of fuel from the circumſtance of its having a greater command on the temperature, (all rarified air aſcending,) and on account of the injury done the trees by the violent heat of the back flues in keeping up the temperature in ſtormy weather; beſides the propenſity of inſects to harbour and breed between the trellis and flue in theſe circumſtances.'

Some other uſeful directions are given reſpecting the culture of this fruit.

On the management of the pinery, Mr. N. has ſome juſt notions, and others that are merely ſpeculative. His directions for making the bark beds that *never* injure by their heat, are theſe.

P. 101.—'My opinion, in reſpect of the quantity and quality of bottom heat required by the pine, has always been different from that of any other author I have read, or indeed any gardener I have converſed with on the ſubject. I never wiſh my pine plants (except in ſtriking ſuckers, &c.) to ſtand in a bottom heat above that of blood heat at any time, and that too of a mild moiſt nature. If the watch-ſtick, to the depth of the bottom of the pot, feels juſt a little warm when felt with the hand, or applied to the cheek when the body is of a comfortable temperature, it is ſufficient; and it certainly conſiſts with reaſon, that the bottom and ſuperficial heat ſhould correſpond at all times. For the more effectual attainment of which, and that the roots may ſuſtain no

injury, I follow the following rules in turning and trenching the bed, viz. I never ſift the tan in the pit at any time; never add above an eighth of new, which, if neceſſary, I give place to by ſkimming off a little of the ſurface of the old; never ſuffer the new tan to lie within a foot of the ſurface, by which means the pots are entirely plunged in the old; I lay the half of whatever quantity of new tan is added in the bottom of the trench, and divide the other equally to within a foot of the ſurface of the bed: in trenching, I throw the ſides to the middle, and the middle to the ſides, that there may be an equal mixture of the old tan. Thus will the bed be of a mild and equal temperature from the firſt, and will continue much in the ſame ſtate for three or four months; and, after the firſt filling, is attended with very little expence for new tan. From the above it is obvious, that, in filling the pit of a new pinery, it ſhould either be done ſeveral months before the plants are to be placed therein, or it ſhould be well ſweated and waſted by turning, in an open ſhed, &c. but it would be adviſable not to plunge the pots above half their depth, for the firſt two or three months after filling, in either caſe. In adding new tan, it ſhould always be thrown up in an heap for eight or ten days before uſing, in order to drip and ſweeten; and ſhould never be applied freſh from the tan-yard; being both wet, and apt to heat violently and cake in the bed, if applied in that ſtate.'

Mr. N. offers his advice on the management of many other articles of this kind of culture; and in an appendix makes ſome very uſeful remarks on the cultivation of different kinds of vegetables in the kitchen garden. This is perhaps the moſt generally uſeful part of his book, though we do not doubt, that the others will be found valuable where forcing is practiſed on a large ſcale.

N.

POETRY. THE DRAMA.

ART. XIX. *The Criſis, or the Britiſh Muſe to the Britiſh Miniſter and Nation.* By the Author of "Indian Antiquities." 4to. 32 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1798.

SOME few readers may poſſibly feel a diſpoſition to ſmile at the following paragraph in the preface to theſe pages; in us it excites a very different propenſity: P. VI.

'It was once the ardent hope of ſome men of enlarged and enlightened minds in this country, that, with its ancient deſpotiſm, the deep-rooted animoſity that has ſo long ſubſiſted between France and England would have terminated. Recent events have proved that animoſity to be unextinguiſhable. That henceforth, nationally, it ſhould be ſo *in a certain degree* ſo as not to exclude the operations of chriſtian charity and candour, is the firm opinion of the author of this poem; and under that conviction it was principally written.'

We really ſhould have been ſomewhat at a loſs to underſtand the preciſe and complete nature of that 'unextinguiſhable animoſity which excludes not the operation of chriſtian charity and candour,' if Mr. Maurice had not explained himſelf more fully; there appeared in this a confuſion of ideas; at leaſt the junction of unextinguiſhable animoſity with chriſtian charity and candour was, to us, utterly

utterly inconceivable. We confeſs, however, even at the firſt, that we ſuſpected the confuſion to be ſtudied and intentional: the author felt a little compunction, a ſlight fluſh of ſhame ſuffuſe his cheek, at being the advocate of 'unextinguiſhable animoſity;' to ſoften the ſenſation, therefore, he thought he might ſtrike a ſort of bargain with chriſtianity, and promiſe, that although his animoſity was to be unextinguiſhable, it ſhould neither diſturb the charity nor candour, which that holy religion inculcates. However, in the courſe of the poem, the author, who, by the by, is profeſſionally a preacher of Chriſt's Goſpel, and conſequently every Lord's day prays, in the name of his congregation, for forgiveneſs of their treſpaſſes and his own, expreſsly on condition, that they alſo forgive thoſe that treſpaſs againſt them; gets the better of his ſqueamiſh ſcruples, and ſpeaks out upon the ſubject without any equivocation. P. 19.

'Shall yon hoar deep in vain your coaſts divide,
Britons, beware! nor paſs the bounding tide?
Heav'n girt your iſland with the barrier ſea,
Rent you from guilty Gaul, and ſaid, BE FREE!
Oh! while one ſpark of Britiſh fire remains,
And life's warm current circles in your veins;
True to the charge which God and Nature gave,
View, as a wall of braſs, that rampire wave:
Still lift the warding ſhield, the hoſtile lance,
Concord with all the world, but war with France.
Her threats deſpiſe, her proffer'd friendſhip ſpurn:
Immortal let your rooted hatred burn!'

This is manly and open: chriſtianity is not brought in here as a veſtal to keep up the ſacred * and immortal fires of hatred: poſſibly ſhe might refuſe the employment.

We hold no fellowſhip with the author of ſuch ſentiments as this poem breathes, any more than we do with the atheiſts of France, the tigers, wolves, cannibals, &c. who people that terrible republic. To uſe the words of our author, they appear 'to demand that decided language of reprobation, which is by no means leſs ſincerely beſtowed, than it is richly merited by him who provoked it.'

But in making theſe obſervations, we have forgotten to ſtate the object of the poem, and neglected to give our opinion of it's execution. In a dedication to the 'noblemen and gentlemen of the London and Weſtminſter light-horſe volunteer troop,' the reverend author tells us, that his poem 'is intended to promote throughout the kingdom the ſame ſpirit of patriot zeal and undaunted fortitude that gave birth to their inſtitution.' This is unqueſtionably a noble object: the very firſt paragraph of the advertiſement, however, ſtates, that 'the following verſes were written without much attention to method, during the ſhort intervals allowed from *more* laborious and *important* ſtudies.' We did not expect this from Mr. M.: can any ſtudy be more important, at ſuch a *criſis* as the preſent, than the ſtudy to promote throughout the kingdom a ſpirit of patriotic zeal and undaunted fortitude? We, who profeſs ourſelves to be true patriots, ſay *no*: Mr. M., it ſeems, is of a different opinion.

As to the poem, it is ſomewhat bombaſtical †; in point of execu-

* "Auri *ſacra* fames."

† "Πολυφλοίσβος, *Magnum Strepitum Faciens.*" Schrevilius.

tion,

tion, it is, otherwiſe, entitled to praiſe: many of the lines are at once energetic and harmonious. Mr. M., after the manner of the greek poets, whoſe hymns enumerate the attributes of the God they aſpire to celebrate, begins with ſinging praiſes to the glory and honour of Mr. Pitt, and of courſe with the illuſtrious catalogue of his virtues and his exploits: P. 10.

'Glowing in youth with freedom's holy fire,
Arm'd with the ſpirit of thy dauntleſs ſire,
Exulting Britain call'd thee to the helm,
And hail'd thee guardian of the ſinking realm.
Taught thee to graſp the bolt that father hurl'd,
Her own dread bolt that awes the ſubject world;
At the fierce Gaul th' avenging ſhaft to aim,
And blaſt her foes with its devouring flame.
When o'er her late the black'ning tempeſt ſpread,
Threat'ning to burſt on her devoted head;
When faction wav'd on high her flaming brand,
And lawleſs uproar rag'd around the land;
While ruffian bands combin'd to trample down
Her ruin'd altars and her plunder'd crown;
In that dread CRISIS of her darkeſt hour,
How nobly did thy daring genius tow'r!
Well ſkill'd Britannia's ſtately bark to guide,
Thou ſteerd'ſt her ſafely through the boiſt'rous tide;
The madneſs of the raving billows brav'd,
And with thy pow'rful arm AN EMPIRE SAV'D:
Firm as the rocks that gird her ſea-beat ſhore,
While round their baſe the deaf'ning ſurges roar.'

. . . . . .

Again, P. 13.

'Oh! born the guardian of our ſinking ſtate,
Born to ſnatch Europe from the jaws of fate,
With firmneſs, PITT, undaunted, perſevere,
While righteous heav'n applauds and men revere:
From uſurpation wreſt her ill-got pow'r,
Chain down her vultures, burning to devour;
Bid Liberty the toiling ſlave illume,
And chaſe the horrors of the dungeon's gloom.'

After this exordium, the poet purſues his main object, and labours to promote a 'ſpirit of patriot zeal, and undaunted fortitude' among his countrymen, as well by recalling to their memories the gallant achievements of their anceſtors on the fields of Creſſy, Poictiers, and of Agincourt, as by expoſing to their contempt the baſeneſs of ſome, and to their pity the miſery of all thoſe countries, who have ſubmitted to the deſolating arms of France:

'Britons, the CRISIS of your fate draws near,
Exalt your ſtandard, graſp th' avenging ſpear;
In radiant arms indiſſolubly join'd,
Be firm, and brave the powers of earth comb[o]in'd.'

We have ſaid, that many lines in this poem are at once energetic and harmonious: the following afford a favourable ſpecimen: P. 14

'Spirit of Roberſpierre! that lov'ſt to rove
The deathful cavern and funereal grove,
What wide deſtruction hath thy fury hurl'd,
How thinn'd the nations of the ravag'd world!
And thou, whoſe ſable pinions, wide outſpread,
O'er all the weſt Cimmerian darkneſs ſhed,
Known by thy phrenzy'd eye, thy blood-ſtain'd veſt,
The Gorgon horrors gleaming on thy creſt,
Democracy! than whom no direr fiend
Did e'er from hell's deep gloom to earth aſcend:
Oh! gender'd when primæval darkneſs reign'd,
And lawleſs anarchy her throne maintain'd;
That lov'ſt to mount the rapid whirlwind's wing,
And hear the ſavage midnight tempeſt ſing;
Or, baſking in the lightning's fearful blaze,
On the wreck'd globe to dart thy raptur'd gaze;
On burning towns and palaces o'erthrown,
And hear'ſt, unmov'd, expiring nature groan;
Dragg'd to thine altars, what a countleſs throng,
Slaughter'd like beaſts, the ſhriek of death prolong!
Nor theſe of vulgar fame, or humble birth,
But of the nobleſt line, the proudeſt worth;
All that in virtue, talents, genius, ſhine,
Swell the dire carnage round thy gory ſhrine!
Or, urg'd by ſavage tenderneſs to ſave
From the dire horrors of an inſtant grave,
What ling'ring tortures ſhall the wretch await,
How black around him rolls the ſtorm of fate:
Torn from the darling child and blooming wife,
In deſert ſolitudes to waſte his life;
Condemn'd beneath a tropic ſun to toil,
Delve the dark mine, or plough the burning ſoil,
Infuriate fiend! at length thy wrath ſuſpend,
Or to the Lybian waſte thy footſteps bend,
On kindred tigers ſpend thy murd'rous rage,
But ceaſe with man eternal war to wage!'

Although we would heartily unite our own endeavours with thoſe of Mr. M., to inſpire our countrymen with a 'ſpirit of patriot zeal and undaunted fortitude,' ſome of the ſentiments contained in this poem excite ſuch diſguſt and unqualified deteſtation, that the author would, in our opinion, have been much more creditably employed in exploring the antiquities of India, than in publiſhing them. Moſt cordially wiſhing Mr. M. ſucceſs in this laborious undertaking, we ſhall tranſcribe the notice he has given us reſpecting it, in his advertiſement, and recommend it to the attention of our readers:

Advert. p. 7.—'The author embraces this opportunity of informing the patrons and friends of his Hiſtory of Ancient India, that he flatters himſelf he ſhall be able to have his ſecond volume of that work ready for delivery to the ſubſcribers early in the enſuing winter. He takes permiſſion, alſo, reſpectfully to add, that the ſubſcription, commenced for the kind purpoſe of obviating the difficulties which

which have hitherto retarded its completion, and which are not yet entirely removed, ſtill continues open at the banking-houſe of Meſſrs. Walwyn, Petrie, and Co. No. 150, New Bond-ſtreet.'

ART. XX. *Paſſages ſelected by diſtinguiſhed Perſonages, on the great literary Trial of Vortigern and Rowena; a Comi-Tragedy. "Whether it be—or be not from the immortal Pen of Shakſpeare?" Vol. III.* Second Edition. 12mo. 96 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

Two or three ſpecimens will ſuffice to ſhow, that theſe ingenious imitations maintain much of the ſpirit and vivacity, which firſt made them popular. [See our Rev. Vols. XXII and XXV.]

P. 19.—' —REV. DR. P—RR.

——' On my reverence, goode ſirs, I am an *orthographer* moſt villainouſlie entreated!—The varlettes tooke me at a *non plus*, juſt emerging from the ſuddes of our village tonſor, with my temples freſh ſhorne of their natural ſtrengthe! Moreover, I had no *pipe* to ſmoke their waggeries withal?—I ſhould have tried their poetique fictionne by the genuine rules of *ſyntaxe*, and then their falſe concords had been moſt apparent! In lack of this, like a dull water fowle have they enſnared me! Nay, 'tis well in chriſtian charitie I went no further; for the knaves did entreat my *affidavit* of their deedes, expecting, as a *prieſte*, that I ſhould ſweare through a churche-door, to ſave themſelves from *d—mn—tion!*'

' PAGE 100.—*Not* GENUINE.'

P. 28.—' —LADY C. G. N—RES.

' Heare, madame, now, an outcaſt daughter ſpeake!—
If 'tis the failinge of puiſſante bloode
To curdle in our veines, and back repelle
The genial flowings of the human harte,
Why not an humbler current be inſtilled
To checque th' enſanguined maladie of pride!—
I feare me I'd a mother but per-chaunce,
And not by any of thoſe tender lawes
With which ſo cloſelie nature doth unite
Her ſmiling progenie!—To me you've talked
So vainlie of the *honours* of our houſe,
That now by modeſtie, each peaſant hutte
Approves itſelf the ſweeter habitation!—
Oh, can you wonder, then, if, from falſe pompe,
Fruitful to me of miſerie alone,
I ſought life's quietude in ſimpler ſcenes,
And found it in an humble huſbande's armes?"

' PAGE 89.—GENUINE.'

P. 61.—' ADMIRAL LORD D—NC—N.

' If that be not a man of ſtature high
In deedes of valour, as in mien—no more
I'll truſt this intellectual eye of mine
To pick me out a hardie-moulded *Britton!*—
Upon *Batavia*'s danke, and ſullen coaſte,
I ſawe his weather-beaten pennants flie,

Taunting their ſluggiſh barques to battel!
At length in ruethful moment gave they ſaile,
And at their verie threſholde met their fate!—
The dreadful worke of nations thus performed,
Soon did the furie of his front ſubſide;
And when their chieftain's banner graced his feete,
A ſigh of ſympathie came ſweetlie forthe,
Preſage of ſomething nobler ſtill, when all
The bitterneſs of wrathe was done away!"

'PAGE 100.—GENUINE.'

P. 79—'DR. L—WR—CE.

'—'I did betake me, t'other morn, to father *L—wr—ce*, a ſoothe-ſayer, and grave oracle o' the *arches*, one who dothe retaile you civille lawe, and politiques moſt villainouſlie compounded!—I found him in learned tribulation, having juſt eſcaped the COMMONS not *doctorial*, where, being far from home, he did make it a dubitable queſtion with his own pericranium, whether he had riſen by his heade, or on his feete?—The wagges had laughed incontinentlie at his confuſion, and told his reverence to his beарde, that he had been aſſeſſing his five ſenſes quintuplie, without levying from thence one graine of common underſtanding!'

'PAGE 104.—GENUINE.'

ART. XXI. *Don Carlos: A Tragedy. Tranſlated from the German of Frederick Schiller, Author of the Robbers, Miniſter, and Fieſco.* 8vo. 320 pages. Price 5s. Richardſons. 1798.

ART. XXII. *Don Carlos, Prince Royal of Spain: An Hiſtorical Drama, from the German of Frederick Schiller, Author of the Robbers, Fieſco, Cabal and Love, &c.* By the Tranſlators of Fieſco. 8vo. 327 pages. Price 5s. Miller. 1798.

IT is ſomewhat remarkable, that a play, which has been ſo long in exiſtence as Don Carlos, and which, in it's native tongue, has been juſtly conſidered as ſurpaſſing all the others of it's author, ſhould have been the laſt, with which the engliſh reader is preſented; and ſcarcely is it leſs remarkable, that, after a long lapſe of time, two tranſlations of it ſhould appear almoſt together, in neither of which is any notice taken of the other. The *latter*, as is ſtated in the title page, is executed by the ſame gentlemen, Mr. Stoddart, and Mr. Noehden, to whom we are indebted for a tranſlation of the conſpiracy of Fieſco, and it certainly does appear, that in 'transfuſing the ſpirit of the german original into the engliſh language, ſome advantage has reſulted from the co-operation of two individuals, reſpectively natives of each country;' the *former* is an anonymous tranſlation. We have compared the two; they are both ably executed, and if the united efforts of Mr. S. and Mr. N. have produced a tranſlation of ſomewhat ſuperiour fidelity, yet muſt we heſitate in giving it a preference on the whole, and acknowledge ourſelves to be rather of opinion, that in point of harmony, animation, and elegance, it is exceeded by it's anonymous rival. The iambic metre of the original, probably from

from a diffidence of ſucceſs, is in both caſes left unattempted; we ſcarcely feel diſpoſed to regret, that both the tranſlations before us are in proſe.

It is juſtly obſerved, 'that the name and works of Schiller are now too well known to need any recommendation. His tragedies of the Robbers, Fieſco, and Cabal and Love *, have ſufficiently eſtabliſhed his reputation, by the originality of their manner, and the boldneſs of their language †.' Like Shakſpeare, he ſcorns ſubmiſſion to the ſcholaſtic rules of ariſtotelian criticiſm; the dramatic unities he repeatedly violates, but the violation is neither ſo frequent, nor ſo glaring, in Don Carlos, as it is in the earlier productions of our author. Neither Schiller nor Shakſpeare would ſubject himſelf to very rigid diſcipline, but the bold and daring genius of both theſe dramatiſts hurries along the reader with ſuch accelerating and irreſiſtible rapidity, as to leave him neither time nor inclination to ſcrutinize defects—the ſympathetic feelings are too ſtrongly excited—the heart is too deeply engaged. But it is unneceſſary for us to deſcant on the genius, the originality, the uncommon energy of Frederick Schiller; they have long ſince acquired a moſt honourable notoriety.

The preſent drama is founded on an hiſtorical fact, which is admirably calculated for a poet, whoſe forte, like that of Schiller, is the diſplay of wild, convulſive paſſion: in the conferences at Cercamp for the concluſion of a peace between France, Spain, and England, Elizabeth, the eldeſt daughter of Henry the ſecond of France, was betrothed to don Carlos, the ſon of Philip the ſecond of Spain. Theſe conferences, however, were interrupted by the death of the emperor Charles the fifth, and by the death of Mary the conſort of Philip: they were removed to Cateau-Cambreſis, where the conſtable Montmorency, in order to facilitate the concluſion of a peace, and in ſome meaſure compenſate for the diſadvantageous terms, to which he was endeavouring to obtain the conceſſion of his royal maſter, ſucceeded in negotiating two treaties of marriage, the one between Henry's ſiſter, Margaret, and the duke of Savoy; the other between Philip himſelf, and Elizabeth, who in the former negotiations at Cercamp had been promiſed to the unfortunate don Carlos.

It is evident, that, in the preſent drama, Schiller has abundant ſcope for the exerciſe of his genius: in the character of don Carlos, he has to diſplay the moſt diſtracting love for his mother-in-law ‡, and the moſt deadly indignation againſt his father, not merely for his contemptuous excluſion of him from all political affairs, and his inſulting preference to the duke of Alba, the preſident Spinoſa, de Sylva, and other ſuppliant favourites, but that he ſhould be imperiouſly ſupplanted, though not in the affections of his beloved

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'* Re-tranſlated under the title of the Miniſter, by M. G. Lewis, Eſq. M. P.' (vid. Anal. Rev. Vol. xxv, p. 596).

† Advertiſement to the anonymous tranſlation.

‡ This circumſtance will call to the recollection of our readers the intereſting ſtory of Antiochus and Stratonice.

Elizabeth

Elizabeth—for there his father's power would fail—that he ſhould be ſupplanted in the poſſeſſion of her hand.

The marquis de Poſa is the boſom friend of don Carlos; he returns from a journey through France and the Netherlands, is immediately made acquainted with his friend's paſſion for the queen, and naturally inquires whether Elizabeth herſelf be aware of his unfortunate affection. P. 13.

'* *Carlos.* How could I diſcover it to her? She is the wife of Philip, ſhe is the queen; and this is the kingdom of Spain, guarded by the jealouſy of my father, and encompaſſed round with form and ceremonial. How is it poſſible I ſhould approach her without witneſſes? Eight wretched months are already paſſed ſince the king recalled me from the royal ſchool to court—ſince I have been condemned to behold her, to hear her, and to be ſilent as the grave. During eight miſerable months, Rodrigo, has this fire blazed in my boſom. A thouſand times has the dire ſecret riſen to my lips, then cowardly retreated to my heart—Oh! Rodrigo! Oh! for an interview alone with her, only for a few moments, only for ſo long time as is neceſſary for man to reconcile himſelf to heaven!'

The marquis contrives to procure this anxious interview at the royal garden at Aranjuez, where he delivers letters to the queen from the court of France; the addreſs of the marquis in introducing the ſubject to the queen, while he conceals it from the attendants, is admirable: P. 26.

'*Queen.* (*To the princeſs Eboli.*) I think, princeſs, I ſee a hyacinth bloom yonder, will you be ſo good as to fetch it for me. (*The Princeſs goes to the place, and the queen ſpeaks in a ſomewhat lower tone to the marquis*) Chevalier, I am much deceived if your arrival has not infuſed new ſpirits and vivacity into at leaſt one perſon at this court.

'*Marquis.* One, however, I have found moſt melancholy, who, heretofore, as gay and lively—(*The princeſs returns with the flower.*)

'*Eboli.* Since the chevalier has ſeen ſo many countries, he can no doubt relate to us many extraordinary adventures.

'*Marquis.* Eſpecially as it is the duty of the knight to ſeek adventures, and his moſt ſacred obligation to protect the fair.

'*Mondekar.* Againſt giants, but there are now no giants.

'*Marquis.* Power is ever a giant to the feeble.

'*Queen.* The chevalier is in the right: giants exiſt, but knights we have none.

'*Marquis.* Lately, as I returned from Naples, I witneſſed an impreſſive event, which the ſacred bond of friendſhip made my own—Did I not fear to tire your majeſty by the relation—

'*Queen.* Heed not me—The curioſity of the princeſs muſt not be diſappointed. Proceed, I am pleaſed to liſten to ſuch hiſtories.

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* This extract, and that which ſucceeds, are both taken from the anonymous tranſlation.

'*Marquis.*

'*Marquis.* In Mirandola, two noble families, wearied with the long jealouſy and enmity which, from the feuds between the Ghibellines and Guelphs, had ſubſiſted between them for centuries, reſolved to confirm an eternal peace by the gentle bands of marriage. Fernando, the nephew of the powerful Pietro, and the beauteous Matilda, the daughter of Colonna, were ſelected for this alliance. Never had two amiable hearts been more exactly formed for each other by nature; never had a choice been more fortunately and wiſely made. Fernando, as yet, had only adored his lovely bride by worſhipping her image. With what anxious hopes and fears were his ardent expectations mingled! In Padua, where he was confined by his ſtudies, he waited the delightful moment when he ſhould be permitted to pay the firſt homage of his love at the feet of Matilda. (*The queen appears more attentive. The marquis proceeds, after a ſhort pauſe; and as far as the preſence of the queen will permit, ſeems to addreſs himſelf more to the princeſs Eboli.*) In the mean time death ſet at liberty the hand of Pietro. With youthful ardour the old man liſtened to the voice of fame, loudly extolling the divine beauty of Matilda —He came—he ſaw—he loved: the new flame ſtifled the voice of nature; the uncle bore away his nephew's bride, and conſecrated his robbery at the altar!

'*Queen.* And what was the conduct of Fernando?

'*Marquis.* On the wings of love, ignorant of the fearful change, he haſtened, with all the enthuſiaſm of paſſion, to Mirandola. He arrived at night. The ſound of cymbals, drums, and dancing, with bacchanalian clamour, deafened his ears as he approached the palace blazing with lights. Unknown to the gueſts he entered the ſpacious hall, where, in riotous merriment, Pietro ſat:—an angel by his ſide, an angel whom Fernando knew; who never, even in dreams, had yet appeared to him ſo divinely lovely.

'*Eboli.* Unhappy Fernando!

'*Queen.* Is your ſtory at an end, Chevalier?—It muſt now certainly be ended.

'*Marquis.* Not entirely.

'*Queen.* Did you not ſay that Fernando was your friend?

'*Marquis.* I have none dearer.

'*Eboli.* Proceed with your ſtory, chevalier.

'*Marquis.* It is very mournful—and the recollection renews the pain my heart has felt.—Spare me the concluſion.—(*A general ſilence.*)

'*The queen. To the princeſs Eboli.* I may now ſurely be permitted to embrace my daughter.—Bring her to me. (*The princeſs goes out.—The marquis makes a ſign to a page in the back ground, who immediately diſappears. The queen opens the letters given her by the marquis, and appears ſurprized. In the mean time, the marquis ſpeaks, ſecretly and very earneſtly, to the marchioneſs de Mondekar.—The queen, having read the letters, turns to the marquis with an enquiring look.*) You have yet ſaid nothing of Matilda. Perhaps ſhe knew not how much Fernando ſuffered?

'*Marquis,*

'*Marquis.* The heart of Matilda no one has yet penetrated; but great ſouls ſuffer in ſilence.

'*Queen.* You look around: whom do you ſeek?

'*Marquis.* I was thinking how happy a certain perſon would be were he in my place,

'*Queen.* Whoſe fault is it that he is not here?

'*Marquis.* (*With animation.*) What do I hear!—May I conſtrue this favourably?—Shall he find pardon if he now make his appearance?

'*Queen.* Now!—Now! What is your meaning?

'*Marquis.* May he dare to hope? May he—

'*Queen.* (*With increaſing perplexity.*) You terrify me, chevalier!—He will not,—

'*Marquis.* Here he is.'

Is it probable that Schiller in his ſtory of Fernando and Matilda had his eye on the play-ſcene in Hamlet, where the prince contrives to have repreſented before Claudius, and his mother Gertrude, "the image of a murder done in Vienna?" perhaps not; but the ſimilitude will ſanction the ſuggeſtion.

This drama, like all which the pen of Schiller has produced, is remarkable for originality of character, for ſtrength, variety, and richneſs of imagery, for animation of dialogue, and the moſt intereſting ſingularity of ſituation. The character of the marquis de Poſa is very uncommon, and is ſupported with inimitable conſiſtency. Hiſtory will not bear out Schiller in thoſe traits of elevation and dignity, which he has given to don Carlos, who is univerſally repreſented as a weak and head-ſtrong youth, a youth of violent and impetuous paſſions; it will be generally acknowledged, however, that an intereſt is added to his character, which highly enriches the drama. Schiller has more than once deviated from hiſtorical truth in the preſent work; on this ſubject we ſhall extract a few pertinent paragraphs from the preface of Mr. N. and Mr. S., which accompanies and ſerves as an uſeful introduction to the drama:

Pref. p. vii.—'The ſtory is built upon the double ground of Carlos's love for the queen, and his intereſt in the fate of the Netherlands; and the arrangement of the plot and characters is ſo contrived, as to excite a ſtrong ſympathy with the former, whilſt it ultimately tends to enhance and exalt the latter. Among the very various traits, which different hiſtorians have given of the character of Philip, thoſe only are ſelected, which by affecting the ſprings of terror and pity, are moſt ſuited to the great ends of tragedy. All the ſplendid miſeries, all the impoſing vices of the tyrant are delineated, without exciting diſguſt at the degrading meanneſs of the man.

'Several of the ſpaniſh nobility teſtified a ſtrong attachment to the prince royal in his misfortunes. One of theſe, the marquis of Poſa, becomes a leading character in this drama, preſenting at once a picture of diſintereſted friendſhip, pure benevolence, and penetrating ſagacity. His liberal and enlightened views of policy form a ſtriking contraſt with the deſpotiſm of Philip, whilſt his generous devotion to the cauſe of humanity ſerves to exalt and

dignify

dignify that, which he ſhows toward his friend. In attributing to his genius and abilities the plan of that revolution, which freed the Netherlands from the ſpaniſh yoke, the author ſeems to have deviated from the track of hiſtory, in order to give a greater ſcope and intereſt to his fable.

'With the ſame view, the defeat of the ſpaniſh Armada, which did not happen until twenty years after the death of Carlos, is brought within the time of the drama. This circumſtance is with great judgment introduced, to mark in Philip that magnanimity, which, joined to his penetration and vigilance, ſerved as a counterpoiſe to the vicious part of his character: for it is not the mere exiſtence of evil, but its combination with great energies, which makes it a fit ſubject for poetic delineation.

'Among the hiſtorical facts, with which our author has enriched his drama, though not ſtrictly belonging to the narration, we may alſo reckon the ſiege of Malta (1565), in which the fortitude of the grand maſter, La Valette, and the heroiſm of the knights excited ſuch univerſal admiration.

'Other circumſtances are, with no leſs propriety, interwoven in the courſe of the work. In the character of the grand inquiſitor, the power of that formidable tribunal is forcibly depicted. Philip's behaviour towards his father is touched with a delicate hand; his ſenſuality is well deſcribed, in his amour with the princeſs of Eboli; and his imperious treatment of his miniſters, in his conduct toward Alva and Dominick.'

Among thoſe parts of the preſent drama, which to us are peculiarly intereſting, is the interview between the king and don Carlos, which we reluctantly forego the pleaſure of tranſcribing: the limits of our Review prohibit us. For the ſame reaſon we forbear to offer our readers the very ſtriking dialogue between Philip and the marquis Poſa; the forbearance, however, is the leſs to be regretted, ſince the celebrity of Schiller will doubtleſs invite a very numerous claſs of readers to the peruſal of the play itſelf.

HISTORY OF LITERATURE.

ART. XXIII. *An Introduction to the Literary Hiſtory of the fourteenth and fifteenth Centuries.* 8vo. 295 pages. Price 5s. Cadell and Davies. London. 1798.

BARLAAM *, Petrarch, and Malpaghino *, Dante, Leontius *, and Boccace, were among the earlieſt and moſt ſucceſsful reſtorers of claſſical and polite literature. This fixes the era of it's revival to be the middle of the fourteenth century; about a hundred years afterwards, the art of printing was invented, and at the cloſe of the fifteenth century, polite learning 'had not only obtained in Italy an honourable eſtabliſhment, but found friends, admirers, and propagators, in every part of Europe.'

It has long been a ſubject of juſt and ſerious regret, that, while the

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* Barlaam was a native of Calabria: Malpaghino, is better known by the name of John of Ravenna: Leo Pilatus was the firſt Greek profeſſor, who taught that language in the weſt of Europe.

pages

pages of our hiſtorians have recorded, oftentimes with tireſome minuteneſs, the trumpery intrigues of a cabinet, and the deſolating wars of an ambitious and blood-thirſty conqueror, the progreſs of art and ſcience, the riſe and fall of literature, have been deemed ſubjects of ſecondary importance, and the hiſtory of them diſpatched in a few haſty pages at the end of a chapter. Robertſon and Henry are entitled to exception, nor is the laborious Ruſſel without ſome praiſe: Mr. Roſcoe merits ſingular encomium for the light, which he has thrown on the reſtoration of literature, and the particular attention, which he has devoted to the ſubject, ſo far at leaſt as it was connected with the life and character of his hero.

Theſe honourable exceptions, however, by no means ſuperſede the neceſſity of a complete, ſyſtematic, and excluſive hiſtory of the revival of letters; in ſuch a hiſtory, neither military affairs, indeed, nor political, would be overlooked; but in ſuch a hiſtory, they would not be ſuffered to monopolize attention, or receive any larger proportion, than their influence in promoting or retarding the ſubject of inquiry might render neceſſary.

The anonymous author of the preſent work has ſimply ſtated it to be an *introduction* to the literary hiſtory of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; the revival of letters, a ſubject ſo long neglected, is at length become a favourite purſuit; from this circumſtance, he indulges a ſanguine hope, that we may gradually obtain an ample and ſatisfactory hiſtory: it is his ambition, to cooperate with the ſcholars engaged in ſuch an undertaking, or at all events, to mingle in the crowd of it's active friends. We cannot do better, than ſtate to our readers the plan of the preſent work, as our author has himſelf ſketched it in a pertinent and animated preface:

Pref. p. xiv.—'In the firſt part of this tract he has endeavoured to give a ſhort hiſtorical and critical ſketch of the decline of learning in the roman empire, and followed it to a period when its ſpirit ſubſided, and its very exiſtence may be reaſonably queſtioned. Need he ſay he means the tenth century? Three ſhort chapters are employed in this diſcuſſion, which if it ſhould not be deemed indiſpenſably neceſſary to an introduction like the preſent, was yet too important to be wholly omitted, though there was little proſpect of doing it juſtice.

'In the ſecond part he has entered on a more difficult taſk, and attempted at ſome length to explain and illuſtrate the principal cauſes to which in his opinion the re-appearance of learning may be properly attributed, its dawn in the eleventh, and an increaſing radiance in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. For this ſeems the proper place to obſerve, that learning, however defined, the ſciences, and in ſome reſpects the arts, had re-appeared before the age of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccace. To them we owe the introduction of claſſical ſtudies, the firſt happy imitation of the roman authors, and what was yet more important, the firſt ſucceſsful cultivation of their vernacular tongue. Nor will it be denied that their age was marked by a correſponding progreſs of rapidity and ſucceſs in the polite arts. It is this ſplendid aſſemblage of merit which has cauſed *their* to be conſidered as the excluſive period of reviving letters, though with conſiderable injuſtice to the two preceding centuries.

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This diſtinction the author flatters himſelf is juſt and accurate, and with thoſe who look beyond the ſurface, who are aware of the *impoſſibility* of the inſtant reproduction of learning, will detract little from the ſplendour and value of that memorable period. It has too much ſolid and intrinſic property to ſhrink from the payment of juſt demands and equitable claims.—To have revived claſſical and polite compoſition is ſplendid praiſe.

'Theſe cauſes will admit of a commodious diviſion.—1. The arabian ſettlements in Europe, and their literary and ſcientific communications.—2. The cruſades in their effects on the manners, learning, romance, and poetry.—3. The introduction of the roman civil law, together with the canon law, into our univerſities, ſchools, and tribunals.

'The third and laſt part is deſigned to exhibit a view of the progreſs of learning thus aſſiſted and advanced, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Hence one chapter is dedicated to a ſtatement of thoſe political events, to which a literary influence may be properly aſcribed, to an account of the patronage of the great, the eſtabliſhment of univerſities, and the travels of ſcholars. The remaining one offers a ſketch of the actual ſtate of learning during that period, but more particularly at its cloſe, under its general branches and diviſions. In this attempt the clear and perſpicuous method of Tiraboſchi is adopted, and with it much of his various and well-digeſted knowledge. Perhaps it would be difficult to ſuggeſt a better mode for arranging and diſcuſſing the abundant materials of the two next centuries.'

Although we are very far from ſuſpecting our author of an inclination to ſhrink from the acknowledgment of his obligations, and although we give him full credit, that he ſcarcely has advanced a fact, for which an authority might not be aſſigned, we cannot but regret, that the modeſt conſideration of his own work as a mere prefatory performance, ſhould have induced him to avoid 'the formality of citation and the parade of notes.' An hiſtorian of the revival of literature has many formidable difficulties to ſurmount: the materials for his work, if not ſcarce, are ſcattered, and the places of their depoſit are many of them unknown. The author of the pages before us muſt have conſulted numerous and recondite writers: the ſubject of his inveſtigation is extremely curious, and in our opinion he would have conferred an additional and very important obligation on his readers, had he directed them to the various ſources, whence his own information is principally derived.

'The preſent work is offered to the public merely as a ſketch. The line which Apelles drew on the canvas of the rhodian painter was inſtantly recognized: without comparing ourſelves to Protogenes, and pretending to his ſagacity, we may ſafely affirm, that it is the ſketch of a maſter; and we ſincerely hope, that the ſame hand, which has deſcribed the outline, will complete the picture. A. N.

MORALS.

ART. XXIV. *The Deportment of a Married Life: Laid down in a Series of Letters, written by the Honourable E—— S——, a few Years ſince, to*

to a young Lady, her Relation, then lately married. Dedicated to the Counteſs of Derby. Second Edition. 8vo. 281 pages. Price 4s. boards. Hodges. 1798.

We are certainly, as a ſex, greatly indebted to the author of theſe letters, for reviving, in our favour, the obſelete doctrine of the *divine* right of *huſbands*, or non reſiſtance and paſſive obedience. In proof of this notion, our fair country-women are here ſagely reminded, 'that as *men* conſtitute the world and make its cuſtoms,' no apology can be offered for a woman, who rebels againſt her ſovereign legiſlators: alſo, as the reſtrictions, which, in our profound wiſdom and policy, we have thought fit to impoſe on them, doubtleſs originated in our regard for them, and were intended for their benefit, it becomes their duty to ſubmit with a good grace.

Further to enforce this admirable doctrine, they are informed, 'that the *prejudices* of cuſtom are not to be cured.' To reſign themſelves therefore to theſe prejudices, and ſail gently down the ſtream, is true wiſdom. But it is a little unfortunately obſerved in a ſubſequent letter, 'that, if you would be *happy*, it muſt be on principles of your own judgement, not on that of other people's: that it is incumbent upon you to pay due regard to your own opinion.' 'Nothing,' it is added, 'is ſo common as are the eſtabliſhed ſentiments of the world,' [a profound remark!] 'but nothing is ſo falſe. *Fools* are guided by them, and they are their deſtruction.' How difficult is it to be conſiſtent! 'All the duties of a wife,' it is aſſerted, 'are founded in the *real ſuperiority* of the huſband [humble and kind creature!] a ſuperiority which the laws of God and man have eſtabliſhed, and which all woman-kind muſt agree in ſubſcribing to.' Their ſubmiſſion, to be perfect and acceptable to their lords and emperours, muſt be paid cheerfully and without reluctance. 'I am ſenſible,' adds this good lady, 'that we have a natural pride, and the men are to blame in that they ſupport and encourage it in our hearts.' [A heavy charge this, if well founded.] To recommend to the ſex this wholeſome doctrine, which it is confeſſed ſometimes goes againſt their inclinations, they are told to conſider, 'that it is in nature, and that the laws of *God* ordain it; that women are weak and *uſeleſs to the world*; that to the *prudence* as well as to the ſtrength of men are owing their ſupport, defence, and *all* the advantages of ſociety.' [Bravo!] What leſs than 'gratitude and ſubjection' can be humbly tendered in return? Meek ſoul! In reply to the objection, 'that men having made the laws, would be ſure to make them in their own favor,' this *pious* matron exhorts her fair diſciples not to be 'carried away with ſuch light opinions, there being laws not of man's making but of God's,' of which the ſubjection of wives is undoubtedly one of the chief. But now for the definition of this obedience; 'the moſt perfect and *implicit faith* in the ſuperiority of an huſband's judgement.' The character of a huſband, it muſt here be underſtood, implies an unerring wiſdom as one of it's attributes. What a pity all our graceleſs young men do not marry! To this implicit faith muſt be added, 'the moſt *abſolute* ſubmiſſion to all his deſires. This will take from you (not merely) a thouſand cares, but will alſo relieve you from the burden of *thought*, a burden more painful than profitable.'

The prudent and good wife is to make herſelf 'the faithful mirror of her huſband, to reflect unaltered his opinions and ſentiments; to have

have no thought, no paſſion, no approbation, no diſlike, but what ſhould be his own reflected judgments.' But now comes a little more inconſiſtency. 'This conduct, however prudent, would be,' it ſeems, alſo '*ſervile*, a meanneſs that would diſgrace a free agent, nay a rational creature. The Being that gave *reaſon, not a frail and erring creature* for a guide, would have it made uſe of.' How then is this difficulty to be gotten over? We will give the paſſage at length for the edification of our gentle readers; we confeſs to us it appears ſomewhat contradictory and obſcure.

P. 224.—'Far be it from me, ever to preſcribe that to you which ſhould deface your reaſon: heaven gave it for your guide, and I would have you uſe it ſo. It was made your diſtinction from all other creatures; keep up the prerogative: there are many ways to the ſame end: you will find, my dear, that I have adviſed you to the attainment of the ſame advantage, by the uſe of your reaſon, which this would make the effect of your ſacrificing it. And you will by this know, that while I propoſe to you all the duties of the wife, nay, and propoſe them even in their fulleſt extent; I expect nothing from you in the fulfilling them, that needs to make a reaſonable creature bluſh, or that even pride itſelf would wiſh to avoid.

'The wife, on my principles, ſhould be in all her thoughts, in all her actions, the attendant and true reſemblance of her huſband; ſhe ſhould no more depart from him than the ſhadow from the ſubſtance; nor ſhould ſhe any more than that can, be unlike to him. Let reaſon be the ſun that gives its being to this attendant; and the purity of the one will as ſurely, as the unaltered form of the other, make it retain the lineaments. The wife who thus in all things that concern their mutual welfare, applies to the huſband, and from him obtains her motion, form and figure, will in all things be to him what he is to himſelf, a ſecond body animated by the ſame ſoul. Nor let this appear an uneaſy ſituation to her. His approbation is her greateſt honour, and 'tis the ſource of her moſt laſting happineſs; this ſhe will aſſuredly acquire from it; and to you, child, it will not appear difficult. You whom I have convinced, that there is a *natural* ſuperiority in your huſband; will not be averſe to acknowledge it in theſe which are the only occaſions on which it can demand your vote in its favour: you will be happy to have the load of thought taken from you, by one who is enabled by nature and by his education to think better; and you will be glad of having the taſk of a deciſion taken from you, in a thing wherein it was at once precarious and important. There are, my dear, theſe occurrences in the way of a married life: there are occaſions in which you are mutually engaged in the event of what is doing; and and in which both muſt concur to the ſame end, if ever you hope to ſee it brought about. There are not many of theſe, but when they happen they are important: 'tis in theſe, and it is only in theſe, that the wife has occaſion to exert her private faculties and intereſts; and 'tis in theſe that I would have her judgment ſeem the reflecting mirror to his determinations; and her form the ſhadow to his body; conforming itſelf to his ſeveral poſitions, and following it in all its motions.'

But a little before our author, to whom we muſt repeat our acknowledgements, is more perſpicuous.

P. 222.—'It is not enough that a wife in all things does what her huſband requeſts, that is at the beſt, in the language of the greateſt judge in the world, being but an unprofitable ſervant. I have recommended

mended to you, my dear, a conformity of mind, temper and ſentiment; that you may be able to execute all that a huſband can requeſt, without making it a matter of obedience. Is it not better to anticipate than to comply with requeſt? Is it not more pleaſant as well as more honourable, to do that of your own inclination which would be a natural ſubject of his command? Purſue the path I have marked out to you, and this will be the conſequence; you will acquaint yourſelf with his very ſoul: you will reſemble him in all his ſentiments; his opinions, his determinations will be all yours; and you will act as he would wiſh without his naming it.'

Notwithſtanding the ſuperiour wiſdom of a *huſband* is thus fully eſtabliſhed, a management ſo artful is recommended to the wife in telling this ſuperiour being of his faults, for even he is not faultleſs, that a humouriſt might be inclined to ſuſpect the good lady meant a ſatire upon her own doctrines. Our obligations to this writer muſt be confeſſed, yet we are induced to believe, that the honeſt language of truth and nature will produce better effects, than theſe high-wrought, overſtrained notions. This ſublime *ſelf-annihilating* doctrine is a fine theory, but we have never found it practicable either in families or ſtates. *Human feelings* are not to be eradicated by artificial precepts. Conſcious of frailty, in common with our ſpecies, without diſtinction of ſex, we are content to be indebted for our happineſs to the good ſenſe and ſenſibility of our country-women, and, diſclaiming theſe obnoxious pretenſions to queſtionable prerogatives, truſt, by a generous confidence, to excite a generous kindneſs.

Some uſeful hints may be gathered from this production reſpecting the regulation of the temper, an important branch of morals in the intimate and trying intercourſe of domeſtic life. D. D.

TRAVELS.

ART. XXV. *An Account of Mr. Park's Journey into the Interior Parts of Africa. From the Proceedings of the African Aſſociation*, 1798. [Small pamphlet.]

MUCH gratitude is due from the public to the members of the african aſſociation, on account of their liberal and ſpirited exertions. This little publication is a proof, that their efforts have not always been unattended with effect, and while it excites curioſity, will we hope, incline the world, by patronizing the work about to be publiſhed, to repay in ſome ſmall degree the adventurous and indefatigable labours of Mr. Park.

We learn, that, on the 22d of december, 1795, this gentleman ſet out on horſeback from the houſe of his friend Dr. Laidley, at Piſania, on the banks of the Gambia, and travelled in an eaſterly direction for the kingdom of Woolli, accompanied by two negro ſervants on aſſes, one of whom ſpoke a little engliſh, and ſerved him as an interpreter. His baggage conſiſted of proviſion, a ſmall aſſortment of toys, a few changes of linen, &c.

Mr. P. reached Medina, the capital of Woolli, on the third day, and was received by the chief with much kindneſs. He wiſhed to perſuade him to proceed no further, but at lengh furniſhed him with a guide to Bondou.

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On the 21ſt of december he arrived at Fatteconda, the capital: 'the king of this country was a pagan, like that of Woolli; but he had adopted the mooriſh name of Almani, and ſeems alſo to have imbibed ſomewhat of the mooriſh diſpoſition; for, though Mr. P. preſented to him his umbrella and ſome other articles, he compelled him to ſtrip in his preſence and ſurrender his coat, which he ſaid he ſhould reſerve for his own wearing on great and public feſtivals. In return, however, he gave our traveller five drachms [*minkallies*] of gold duſt, and loaded him with proviſions.'

We ſoon after find Mr. P. at a place called Joag in the kingdom of Kajaaga, a country bounded on the north by the Senegal river. The natives, who are called ſera-woollies, ſeem to be pure negroes, and were aſtoniſhed at the ſight of a white man. *Bacheri* was the name of the rapacious chief, who governed this uncivilized nation, and from his dominions our traveller with great difficulty effected his eſcape, not however without the loſs of about one half his goods and apparel.

Accompanied by the king of Kaſſon's nephew, he croſſed the river Senegal at Kayee, and was led by his friendly conductor to Teſee, the place of his abode, and the reſidence of the king's brother Tigetee-Sego, 'an old man of a venerable aſpect, but of a ſelfiſh diſpoſition. He had never ſeen, he ſaid, but one white man before, and on deſcribing him it was known to be major Houghton.'

Our adventurer now proſecuted his journey eaſtward, and in five days arrived at Kerunoo, a large and populous town, ſince deſtroyed, but at that time the metropolis of Kaarta. Having informed the chief, that he purpoſed to go to Bambara, in ſearch of the Joliba river, which was believed to take it's courſe through the centre of that extenſive kingdom, he found that his only ſafe route was a northerly courſe to Ludamar, a territory of the moors in alliance with Manſong the king of Bambara. He accordingly ſet out for Jarra, and paſſed through a village called Simbing, whence major Houghton wrote his laſt diſpatch with a pencil.

We now learn ſome few particulars reſpecting proviſion, the ſtate of the ſeveral countries, &c. The price of a fowl in Bondou was a button, or a ſmall bit of amber, and for ſix or eight amber beads a bullock might at any time have been purchaſed. The natives of this part of Africa have not yet acquired the art of taming the elephant, and when Mr. P. told them, that this was actually done in the eaſt, his auditors laughed and exclaimed "tobaubo fonnio!" a white man's lie!

The town of Jarra is ſituate in the kingdom of Ludamar, and the houſes are built of clay and ſtone intermixed. After preſenting Ali the mooriſh chief with five garments of country cloth, procured by the exchange of a fowling piece, permiſſion was granted to proceed onward, from this place, and on the 7th of march, our traveller reached Sami, within two days journey of the frontier town of Bambara, and was reſting himſelf in the hut of a friendly negro, when he was taken priſoner by ſome moors, who conducted him to Ali then at the camp of Benowm. From this place, where he was kept in a ſtate of captivity, and expoſed to hourly danger, from

the caprice or fanaticiſm of barbarians, he found means to eſcape on the 1ſt of july, 1796.

After a variety of perilous adventures: 'at length, on the morning of the ſixteenth day, having been joined by ſome Mandingo negroes, who were travelling to Sego, he had the inexpreſſible ſatisfaction to behold the great object of his wiſhes—the long-fought majeſtic Niger glittering to the morning ſun, as broad as the Thames at Weſtminſter, and flowing majeſtically but ſlowly from weſt to eaſt, through the middle of a very extenſive town, which his fellow travellers told him was Sego, the capital of the great kingdom of Bambara. His emotions at this ſight were exquiſite, and it would be unjuſt not to give them in our traveller's own words: "I haſtened," ſays he, "to the brink of the river, and having drank the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the great ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with ſucceſs."

Then follows a deſcription of the place, &c., alluded to above.

The city of Sego conſiſts of four diviſions or quarters, two on each ſide of the water; and each of them being ſurrounded by a mud wall, it has the appearance of four diſtinct towns. The houſes are built of clay, and have flat roofs; but ſome of them have two ſtories, and many are white-waſhed. Beſide theſe buildings, mooriſh moſques are ſeen in every quarter. Theſe objects, with the numerous boats on the river, a crowded population, and the cultivated ſtate of the ſurrounding country, formed altogether a proſpect of civiliſation and magnificence, which our traveller little expected to find in the boſom of Africa. From the beſt inquiries he could make, he had reaſon to believe, that the place contained altogether about 30,000 inhabitants.

The boats on the Niger are formed of the trunks of two large trees rendered concave, and joined together, not ſide by ſide, but lengthwiſe, the junction being exactly acroſs the middle of the boat. They are therefore very long, and diſproportionably narrow; and have neither decks nor maſts: they are however roomy. Mr. P. obſerved in one of them four horſes and a great many people croſſing at a ferry.

To this ferry Mr. P. proceeded, intending to croſs over to the largeſt quarter of the city, where he was informed the king of Bambara held his reſidence; but the number of people preſſing for a paſſage was ſuch as to prevent his embarkation.

The multitude gazed on the ſtranger with ſilent wonder; and he diſtinguiſhed with concern many moors among them. In the mean time, information, that a white man was waiting for a paſſage, was conveyed to the king; who immediately ſent a meſſenger to inquire what brought him to Sego, and what he wanted? Our traveller, having given the beſt anſwer he could as to the motives of his journey, added, that he was there in his way to Jenné, and, having been robbed of all he poſſeſſed, implored the king's bounty and protection. The meſſenger told him to go to a diſtant village, which he pointed out, and wait for the king's farther orders.

Mr. P. complied with theſe directions, but found, that the inhabitants of the village were either averſe or afraid to give him lodg-

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ing or entertainment; and having turned his horſe looſe, he ſought ſhelter from a ſtorm of thunder and rain under a tree. At length, as night approached, the kindneſs and humanity inherent in the female ſex, to which he had often been indebted on former occaſions, came to his relief on the preſent. A poor negro woman returning from the labours of the field obſerved, that he was wet, weary, and dejected, and, taking up his ſaddle and bridle, told him to follow her. She led him to her cottage, lighted up a lamp, procured him an excellent ſupper of fiſh, and plenty of corn for his horſe; after which, ſhe ſpread a mat upon the floor, and ſaid he might remain there for the night. For this well-timed bounty our traveller preſented her with two of the four braſs buttons which remained on his waiſtcoat. Mr. P. relates, that this good woman, having performed the rites of hoſpitality herſelf, called in the female part of her family, and made them ſpin cotton for a great part of the night. They lightened their labour by ſongs: one of which muſt have been compoſed extempore; for our traveller was himſelf the ſubject of it; and the air was, in his opinion, the ſweeteſt and moſt plaintive he had ever heard. The words, as may be expected, were ſimple, and may be literally tranſlated as follows: "The winds roared, and the rain fell. The poor white man, faint and weary, came and ſat under our tree. He has no mother to bring him milk—no wife to grind his corn."——*Chorus.* "Let us pity the white man; no mother has he, &c.

After remaining three days in this place, a meſſenger arrived, and preſenting Mr. P. with 5000 cowries, in the name of Manſong the king, who 'wiſhed to relieve a white man in diſtreſs,' enjoined him to depart immediately from the vicinity of Sego, adding, that, if his intentions were really to proceed to Jenné, he had orders to accompany him as a guide to Sanſanding.

The firſt town of any note they arrived at was called Kabba, ſituate in the midſt of a beautiful and highly cultivated country; the inhabitants of which were buſied in gathering in the *ſhea* harveſt, this conſiſts of a fruit called the *ſhea-toulu*, or tree butter.

Finding on his arrival at Silla, that it would be utterly impoſſible to reach Jenné, unleſs under the protection of ſome men of weight and influence among the moors, he at length determined to deſiſt.

At the ſame time he conſidered, that by returning to Gambia by a different route, he might ſtill promote in ſome degree the purpoſe of his miſſion, for having diſcovered the Niger at a great diſtance from it's head, he ſhould be adding conſiderably to the geography of Africa, in tracing this myſterious river up the ſtream to it's ſource.

He accordingly ſet out, on his journey homeward, reached Bammakoo where the Niger ceaſes to be navigable, and arrived at Kamalia, where he agreed for the value of one ſlave to be conducted by the caravan to Piſania, with which he ſet out in the latter end of april 1797, and on the 10th of june, once more entered the hoſpitable manſion of Dr. Laidley. On the 15th of the ſame month he embarked in a ſlave ſhip bound to America, which being driven by ſtreſs of weather into Antigua, he took his paſſage thence, in a

veſſel bound to Great Britain, and arrived in London, on the 25th of december 1797.

This narrative, which is ſaid to be the compoſition of Mr. Bryan Edwards, is drawn up in a plain, neat, and perſpicuous ſtyle, for the uſe of the members of the african aſſociation. s.

POLITICS. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXVI. *Talleyrand's Defence. Strictures on the American State Papers delivered by the Preſident of the United States to the American Congreſs, on April* 5, 1798. *Including the official Correſpondence with the American Envoys at Paris, relative to the Charges againſt the French Miniſtry, which appeared in a London Newſpaper in May laſt.* By M. Talleyrand, Miniſter of Foreign Affairs in France. Tranſlated from the French. 8vo. 25 pa. Price 6d. Jordan. 1798.

THE charges exhibited againſt the french government, by two of the american plenipotentiaries, are here termed 'a deplorable monument of credulity and contradictions,' and 'a provocation evidently ſuggeſted by the britiſh government.'

General Pinckney and Mr. Marſhal are ſaid to have been extremely prejudiced againſt the french republic; and the former is reported to have been led by the converſation of an artful intriguing woman, 'connected' with himſelf, and unauthorized by the government, to miſconceive it's intentions. It would appear, however, from the letter ſigned 'Hauteval,' that the ſubject of a *loan* was ſtarted by the miniſter; and ſurely the manner in which this was reſiſted, more eſpecially when accompanied with a threat, cannot be blamed by any one, who would wiſh to conſider America as an independent nation. The ſpeech of the preſident might have given juſt cauſe of offence, but was friendſhip to be purchaſed by means of *batavian inſcriptions?*

ART. XXVII. *Letters of the Ghoſt of Alfred, addreſſed to the Hon. Thomas Erſkine and the Hon. James Fox, on the Occaſion of the State Trials at the Cloſe of the Year* 1794. 8vo. 126 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Wright. 1798.

THESE letters, which exhibit much violence againſt meſſrs. Erſkine and Fox, were originally publiſhed in the newſpaper called the 'True Briton.'

Had ſuch a '*ghoſt*' been conjured up on the other ſide of the queſtion, it would have been encloſed within the magic circle of a paper writing called an *indictment*, and *laid* long before this by his majeſty's attorney general.

ART. XXVIII. *The Family Tale: or the Story of Pitt, Fox, and O'Connor.* 8vo. 32 pages. Price 1s. Hatchard. 1798.

THIS is a fooliſh tale in proſe, about a Mr. George, 'who was for ever unfortunate in his rewards; who, too often, turned out extravagant and unfaithful—bent on enriching themſelves inſtead of

of saving his money, and putting their relations and friends into all the offices of the family.' Mr. Foxton and Mr. Pitman both come in for some share of abuse, but the former is chiefly condemned for encouraging 'Connoro and his gang,' after they had made great depredations on the 'irish estate.'

ART. XXIX. *A Letter to the Hon. Charles James Fox: shewing how appearances may deceive, and Friendship be abused!!!* 8vo. 27 pages. Price 6d. Wright. 1798.

A PUNY attempt on the part of a dwarf, against a giant.

ART. XXX. *The Theory of the National Debt, with Observations on the Land Tax, and the present Situation of Stockholders.* 8vo. 33 pages. Price 6d. Jordan. 1798.

THE author wishes to convince us of what we are all pretty well assured; the magnitude and disadvantages of our national debt. After lamenting the immense sums, that have been expended in the support of unproductive labour, he adds with a considerable degree of truth:

'If all the soldiers, sailors, and other appendages of childish wars, had been employed in facilitating the communication between different counties, by canals, and other works of lasting utility, Great Britain would now have been an expanse of garden, extended to the farthest wilds of Scotland.'

In another place he expresses himself thus: 'Such would have been the progress of the wealth of England, unburthened by a debt; the number of her monied men would have encreased with the encreased prosperity of the country, till the rate of her interest and commodities had sunk below those of any other european state; she would consequently have supplied all Europe with the most valuable and portable articles of commerce; all the manufacturers and labourers necessary to raise these articles, all the merchants necessary to circulate them would have resided within her territories; she would have possessed the wealth of Europe.'

From this romantic prospect of national prosperity our eyes are soon averted, in order to behold a hideous, and we hope an exaggerated picture of a minister seizing the working capital of a nation, and drying up the sources of public wealth.

'One other way remains,' says the author, 'the extreme villainy of which will probably be overlooked in the present emergency,—to apply the interest of the national debt to the support of the war. It is evident that by this measure no other effect would be produced, than diverting a certain quantity of national capital from the support of one set of unproductive labourers to that of another, our soldiers and sailors. The national wealth would remain the same; the misery of individuals would be incalculable.'

By accusing a premier of such an atrocious attempt, writers like the present contribute not a little to the furtherance of his measures, for where is there one of the numerous body of stockholders, who would not sooner consent to have his property *decimated* by the state, as has been lately suggested, than agree to be

thus robbed of the whole? In ſhort, the fear of the one might render the other meaſure popular.

ART. XXXI. *A new Enquiry into the Principles and Policy of Taxation, in the political Syſtem of Great Britain.* 8vo. 128 p. Pr. 2s. Wallis. 1798.

THE author of this 'new enquiry,' after exhibiting a ſhort view of the origin and eſtabliſhment of our various taxes, proceeds to conſider their principles and policy.

Not yet ſatisfied with the various impoſts, to which we are already ſubjected, and which, as a whole, ſeem, in his own words, to form 'a ſyſtem of financial œconomy, equally friendly to popular welfare, and productive of the intereſts and energies of the government,' he himſelf propoſes others, ſuch as a tax upon 'places of publick diverſion,' and another on the 'transfers of ſtocks.' He thinks, indeed, that although parliament has pledged it's faith 'to *exempt* from taxes the ſtock and funds, and intereſt in the bank,' it may repeal the obnoxious ſtatute with the ſame eaſe as the Habeas Corpus act. This, we apprehend, to be very lax morality.

After attending to the 'voluntary contributions,' in terms of no common panegyric, he concludes as follows: 'Here then is a new and extraordinary meaſure deviſed, by which the public are likely to be exonerated from taxes to ſo large an amount this year, as ſeven millions! How far this magnanimous project will really be executed, it reſts with the ſubjects of a free and glorious conſtitution to teſtify, by exhibiting a line of conduct which will outſtrip the fame of their anceſtors in the noble and exalted virtue of patriotiſm.

'The britiſh character already appears in towering majeſty, triumphing with proud diſdain over the impotent and deſperate fanaticiſm of an inſulting foe; and by its ſuperior and reſplendent rays, rapidly extinguiſhing the feeble half-cheriſhed flame of falſe patriotic fire, which has been kindled in the breaſts of the inimical rivals of her fame—a fierce but impotent blaze of menacing deſtruction.' O.

ART. XXXII. *A Defence of the Sunday Schools: Attempted in a Series of Letters addreſſed to the Rev. M. Olerenſhaw, in Anſwer to his "Sermon on the Sanctification of the Sabbath, and on the right Uſe and Abuſe of Sunday Schools."* By J. Mayer. 12mo. 98 pages. Price 1s. Stockport, Clarke; London, Chapman. 1798.

THE ſubject of theſe pages has undergone ſuch repeated diſcuſſion, the utility of ſunday ſchools, and the objections which lie againſt them, together with the modes on which they may be eligibly conducted, have ſo frequently, and, we may add, effectually been canvaſſed, that much novelty of remark concerning them is not now to be expected. Mr. Olerenſhaw, in his ſermon, reprobates what, according to the levitical prohibition from labour on the ſabbath, he calls the profanation of the Lord's day; namely, "the teaching in ſunday ſchools thoſe branches of learning which have no relation to the ſoul of man, or to the future world; ſuch as writing and accompts, &c." He urges many other objections

jections againſt the "modern mode" of conducting theſe ſchools, all which objections are anſwered by Mr. M. in a ſenſible and ſatisfactory manner. Mr. M. writes like a gentleman, and conſequently without the unbecoming aſperity of a polemic. We have been pleaſed with the peruſal of his pamphlet, and coincide with him in opinion, that ſunday ſchools are uſeful proportionately as the plan on which they are conducted is liberal and extended. L. L.

EDUCATION. SCHOOL BOOKS. BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

ART. XXXIII. *Analyſis of Education, and Plan of a Seminary for young Ladies: with the Form of Morning and Evening Prayers uſed at Sutton-Houſe.* By Miſs Jones. 4to. 44 pages. Longman. 1798.

BY ſenſible and conſiderate parents the choice of a ſeminary for the education of their children will be regulated by the abilities and integrity of the conductor. But it is not always eaſy to obtain the neceſſary information on this point. With the laudable purpoſe of removing any difficulty of this kind, as far as reſpects herſelf, miſs Jones ſubmits the preſent plan to the public, which, while it enables them to judge of her acquaintance with the ſubject of education, will alſo ſerve as a bond for her fidelity and care in the diſcharge of what ſhe thus ſpecifically undertakes. The plan here ſketched appears to be ſufficiently comprehenſive, and the obſervations arranged under the three general heads of body, mind, and accompliſhments, if not novel, are ſenſible and judicious. The concluſion treats of the means proper to be uſed in the government of children, from which we are induced to tranſcribe the following paſſage, becauſe the maxim contained in it, though of great importance, is unfortunately but very little attended to in education. 'The rewards and puniſhments ſhould conſiſt in the ſmiles of love, and in the abatements of familiarity. Praiſe and blame, uſed with judgment, may alſo prove deſirable means, but with as little alluſion to the merits of others as poſſible. Children ſhould be taught a love of excellence itſelf, rather than a deſire of excelling their companions; for nothing is more amiable than to ſee them putting one another in the beſt light, and yielding the preference. But as emulation may be made uſeful, it ſhould rather be excited into imitation of the elder girls by the younger, than promoted into conteſts between thoſe of the ſame age and attainments.' Some little inaccuracies of language, ſuch as, (P. 7.)—'Beer is not injurious, *only as* it tends to create a diſtaſte to water,' with a few others, miſs J. may eaſily rectify, when ſhe has occaſion for another impreſſion of the Analyſis. A. C.

ART. XXXIV. *Eaſter Holidays, or Domeſtic Converſations, deſigned for the Inſtruction, and it is hoped for the Amuſement of young People.* Small 8vo. 336 pages. Price 3s. 6d. bds. Bath, Hazard; London, Vernor and Hood. 1797.

EASTER Holidays, or the domeſtic Converſations of the Melmoth Family, is deſigned by the writer more particularly for the uſe of boys, between twelve and thirteen years of age: yet 'the youth of

of both ſexes, it is hoped, may find ſome amuſement in what was written ſolely with a view of ſerving them.'

It is modeſtly added, introd. p. iv.—' Should one ſingle youth be amended of any the moſt trifling error, by peruſing the following ſheets; ſhould one parent honour my opinions with approbation, and think any benefit has been derived from reading the Converſations of the Melmoth Family—I ſhall conſider myſelf as amply rewarded.'

Every attempt for the moral or mental improvement of the riſing generation is praiſe-worthy, and if the preſent performance rank not with the productions of a Barbauld, an Aikin, a Percival, or a Day, it may yet be ſafely admitted into the juvenile library, as favourable to the cauſe of humanity and virtue, while conveying inſtruction in the pleaſing garb of amuſement.

ART. XXXV. *Pity's Gift: A Collection of intereſting Tales, to excite the Compaſſion of Youth for the Animal Creation. From the Writings of Mr. Pratt.* Selected by a Lady. Ornamented with Vignettes. 12mo. Price 2s. boards. Longman.

THIS ſelection from the writings of Mr. Pratt, for the purpoſe of enforcing on the minds of youth an attention to the duties of humanity, is well calculated to anſwer the deſign of the benevolent compiler.

ART. XXXVI. *Tales of the Cottage; or Stories, moral and amuſing, for young Perſons. Written on the Plan of that celebrated Work Les Veillées du Château, by Madame la Comteſſe de Genlis.* 18mo. 218 pages. Price 2s. Vernor and Hood. 1798.

THE Tales of the Cottage are intereſting and appropriate, and calculated to anſwer the purpoſe of the writer, ' the improvement and entertainment of youthful readers.'

ART. XXXVII. *A Mirror for the Female Sex. Hiſtorical Beauties for young Ladies. Intended to lead the Female Mind to the Love and Practice of Moral Goodneſs. Deſigned principally for the Uſe of Ladies' Schools.* By Mrs. Pilkington. Small 8vo. 250 pages, with 34 Engravings on Wood. Price 3s. in boards. Vernor and Hood. 1798.

FOR an account of the preſent production, we will borrow the language of it's author. P. vi.

' The following pages, though profeſſedly extracted from labours ſanctioned by public approbation, are now, for the firſt time, applied to one ſpecific object of improvement, and meant to operate in a new direction. The idea was ſuggeſted to my mind by a little very popular work; *Dodd's Beauties of Hiſtory.* Yet as this was evidently written for the edification of his own ſex, and mine for that of ours, I flatter myſelf the *Hiſtorical Beauties* will not be conſidered as wholly deſtitute of novelty; that its uniform aim is rather to amuſe and inſtruct, than agitate or ſurpriſe.'

P. ix.—' It has been long matter of general and ſincere regret, that the exterior of female education is cultivated but too frequently at the expence of qualities more valuable; that a ſhowy outſide leaves hardly any taſte for mental excellence; and that reality is every where avowedly ſacrificed to appearance. The requiſites for indulging this faſhion-

able

able propenſity, give young ladies, eſpecially while at ſchool, no time for acquiring the leaſt idea of general hiſtory, as they enjoy no leiſure for reading, or digeſting what little they may read. To alleviate this inconvenience, and prevent, as much as poſſible, its pernicious influence on the feminine mind, theſe *ſelections* from ancient and modern authors, of eſtabliſhed reputation and celebrity, are publiſhed for their accommodation; that, without intenſe application, or any ſuperfluous waſte of time, they may have the advantage of an early acquaintance with ſuch extraordinary characters in their own ſex, as have either adorned or diſgraced the page of biography.'

We recommend, with pleaſure, this ſelection to families and ſchools.

ART. XXXVIII. *Scripture Hiſtories; or, Intereſting Narratives extracted from the Old Teſtament, for the Inſtruction and Amuſement of Youth.* By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 162 pages. Price 2s. ſewed. Newberry. 1798.

THE motive, as profeſſed by the author, of preſenting this little work to the public is, pref. iii, 'to impreſs the youthful mind with exalted ideas of the divine nature, to incline it to the peruſal of the holy ſcriptures, and imperceptibly to lead it to the practice of religious duties.' The variety of beautiful narratives interſperſed through the Old Teſtament cannot fail of intereſting the imaginations and affections of youth. Mrs. P. has ſelected thoſe moſt generally quoted and admired, connecting them by a domeſtic tale: her attempt to *familiarize* the language of ſcripture hiſtory appears to us ill-judged; the dignified ſimplicity of the original ſtyle and manner being perfectly appropriate to the preſent purpoſe.

ART. XXXIX. *Inſtructive Rambles in London and the adjacent Villages. Deſigned to amuſe the Mind and improve the Underſtanding of Youth.* By Elizabeth Helme. 2 vols. 12mo. 360 pages. Price 5s. ſewed. Longman.

USEFUL information, connected by a family tale, fitted to engage and improve the minds of youth. A. G.

ART. XL. *The firſt Principles of Engliſh Grammar, methodically exhibited and explained, upon a Plan entirely new, tending to render the Knowledge of them uſeful in the Study of other Languages.* By Nicholas Salmon, Author of an Etymological Dictionary, entitled Stemmata Latinitatis, and of ſeveral Works upon the Engliſh and French Languages. 8vo. 120 pages. Price 2s. bound. Dilly. 1798.

FROM the pen of Mr. Salmon the philologiſt has on various occaſions been gratified with accuracy and ingenuity of grammatical inveſtigation. In the little work now in our hands he deviates conſiderably from the uſual plan of engliſh grammars. The genders of nouns, the formation of the plural, and the inflections of verbs, he rapidly glances at in the preface, as things 'with which children become naturally and readily acquainted' in their mother tongue, and proceeds, in the firſt chapter, to an enumeration of, and obſervations on, the parts of ſpeech. 'Theſe are illuſtrated

illuſtrated by an analyſis of Mallet's beautiful ballad of Edwin and Emma; which is conducted with acuteneſs and perſpicuity, and is certainly an excellent method of making the pupil intimately acquainted with the ſubject. The ſecond chapter treats of the caſes or modes of nouns; by which, it is to be obſerved, the author underſtands 'whatever may, by being placed before or after nouns, be equal to thoſe terminations uſed in ſome languages, which have been denominated caſes or inflections. Of theſe he diſtinguiſhes ſeven, nominative, accuſative, oblique, elliptical, vocative, interjective, redundant, and exemplifies them by a ſecond reſolution of Edwin and Emma. The poſſeſſive or genitive caſe of all former grammarians he utterly diſcards, conſidering it as a ſort of adjective, like the words onion and brick in *onion* ſauce and *brick* houſe; the *s* being a contraction of the german word *es* equivalent to *that* or *the*, and belonging to the latter noun as it's article. On this ingenious theory, as well as the manner in which he attempts to account for the anomalous phraſe *than whom*, we ſhall not haſtily hazard a deciſion; but ſhall conclude by obſerving, that this grammar is particularly well adapted for the uſe of thoſe who have commenced, or are about to commence, the ſtudy of latin.

ART. XLI. *Abrégé de la Grammaire Françoiſe, &c.—An Abridgement of the Abbé de Levizac's French Grammar.* 8vo. 129 pages. Dulau and Co. 1798.

OF MR. de Levizac's French Grammar our readers will ſee that we have ſpoken in ſtrong terms of approbation, if they will take the trouble to turn to Anal. Rev. vol. XXVI, p. 304. The abridgement now before us is made by the author himſelf, to ſerve as an introduction to his former work, and alſo for the uſe of thoſe, who are deſirous, without entering deeply into french grammar, to become acquainted with it's general and fundamental rules, or who, having made a regular ſtudy of the language, wiſh occaſionally to refreſh their memories on it's eſſential principles. For each of theſe purpoſes it appears to be well adapted; and experience, we have no doubt, will ſoon afford the moſt indubitable of all teſtimonies in it's favour.

ART. XLII. *An Engliſh Key to Xenophon's Memorabilia of Socrates, literally tranſlating the Paſſages which appear difficult to young Beginners; and explaining their grammatical Conſtruction. Intended as an Introduction to conſtruing the Greek Claſſics into Engliſh without the Uſe of Latin. For the Uſe of Schools.* 8vo. 281 pages. Price 5s. in boards. Matthews. 1797.

THAT in a ſyſtem of claſſical education the ſtudy of the greek language ſhould take the lead, ſeems as natural, as that, in tracing the windings of a river, we ſhould proceed from it's ſource. But it has been our practice in this caſe, ever ſince the reſtoration of learning, to ſtrive againſt the ſtream; and while matters continue in the ſame train, it ſeems but fair, that boys ſhould be allowed to avail themſelves of what aſſiſtance they can derive from the knowledge

ledge of latin, which it has coſt them ſo much pains to acquire. 'To teach greek, without the leaſt aſſiſtance from latin,' to one who has already ſtudied the latter language, is not only unneceſſary, but even impoſſible; for the numerous and cloſe analogies between the ſtructure of both muſt and will preſent themſelves to every ſtudent. Of latin verſions, however, we have already expreſſed our diſapprobation, and for theſe we think ſuch performances as the preſent may prove an excellent ſubſtitute, as well as very uſeful in caſes, where the greek idiom is more happily elucidated by the engliſh phraſeology. A. C.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XLIII. *A Narrative of the Sufferings and Eſcape of Charles Jackſon, late Reſident at Wexford in Ireland, including an Account, by way of Journal, of ſeveral barbarous Atrocities committed in June 1798, by the Iriſh Rebels in that Town, while it was in their Poſſeſſion, to the greater Part of which he was an Eye-witneſs.* 12mo. 82 pages. Price 2s. Wright. 1798.

MR. JACKSON tells us, that he was born in England, but repaired at a very early period of life to Ireland, married there, and in the beginning of the year 1797, ſettled in Wexford, as a carver and gilder.

The number of inſurgents, who attacked that town, is computed at 15,000. On this occaſion, he and his wife got on board a veſſel in order to proceed to Wales, but no ſooner was the place taken and a white flag diſplayed, than the captain anſwered it by a ſimilar ſignal, and returned to the harbour.

'We paſſed through crowds of the rebels,' ſays he, 'who were in the moſt diſorderly ſtate, without the leaſt appearance of diſcipline. They had no kind of uniform, but were moſt of them in the dreſs of labourers, white bands round their hats and green cockades*, being the only marks by which they were diſtinguiſhed. They made a moſt fantaſtic appearance, many having decorated themſelves with parts of the apparel of ladies, found in houſes which they had plundered. Some wore ladies hats and feathers; others caps, bonnets, and tippets. From the military which were routed, they had alſo collected ſome clothing, which added to the motley ſhow. Their arms conſiſted chiefly of pikes, of an enormous length, the handles of many of them being ſixteen or eighteen feet long. Some carried ruſty muſkets. They were accompanied by a great number of women ſhouting and huzzaing for the *Croppies*, and crying, who now dare ſay, "Croppies, lie down?" alluding to a popular ſong. It was impoſſible for a mob to be more wild and frantic:—many of the men ſeemed in a ſtate of intoxication.'

Mr. Jackſon relates many atrocities, part of which he himſelf witneſſed; it is to be obſerved however, that his prejudices are very ſtrong, particularly reſpecting the roman catholics.

'* *Green* has been adopted as an emblem by the iriſh rebels, with a reference to the trefoil, or *ſhamrock*.'

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ART. XLIV. *Buonaparte in Egypt: or, an Appendix to the Enquiry into his ſuppoſed Expedition to the Eaſt.* By Eyles Irwin, Eſq. 8vo. 23 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Dublin, printed; London, reprinted for Nicol. 1798.

WE have already noticed the pamphlet, to which this is intended as an appendix, [ſee the laſt number of our Rev. pa. 324] and detailed the opinions of the author. Mr. I. now allows, that, after the moſt diſcouraging difficulties, Buonaparte has obtained conſiderable ſucceſs in Egypt: but he ſtill thinks, that the chances are againſt his final ſucceſs, and on this occaſion he reverts to a former period of the french hiſtory:

P. 9.—'And here the fate of a ſimilar expedition, incited by ſimilar motives, muſt occur to the reader—the cruſade into Egypt under St. Lewis of France! The rage of that day was to recover the holy places and to chriſtianize the infideis! and what is the preſent but a cruſade, to rob the turks of a rich acquiſition, and to revolutionize a ſervile and mixed race of mahometans and copts? St. Lewis failed, to the great happineſs of his country, in his ſuperſtitious adventure; the ſucceſs of Buonaparte is not more likely to contribute to the power or commerce of democratic France.

'If we turn to the ingenious and elegant Savary, whoſe travels convey no leſs amuſement than inſtruction, we find that St. Lewis reached the mouth of the Nile with a fleet of 1,800 ſail of tranſports and ſhips of war. The force contained in ſuch an armament muſt, at leaſt, have exceeded four times the numbers of Buonaparte's army. Damietta, the key of the eaſtern branch of the Nile, though ſtrongly fortified and garriſoned, was taken by aſſault, and with little loſs to the victors; and a circumſtance favoured their march to Cairo, which was wanting, and has proved the chief obſtacle, to Buonaparte. The french monarch arrived early in june, before the inundation and when the Nile was at the loweſt; the general, when the inundation had probably taken place, and the Delta was a ſheet of water.

'One falſe ſtep loſt all theſe advantages to St. Lewis; and a ſimilar one may blaſt the ripening projects of Buonaparte. The king waited unluckily for a reinforcement under the count of Poitiers. The republican general, from the comparative ſmallneſs of his force and the loſſes it muſt have ſuſtained, muſt of neceſſity wait for ſupplies to preſerve his new acquiſitions. To open a communication with the ſea, ſuch detachments muſt be made from his main army as to reduce it, in my idea, to 10,000 men at utmoſt! We will admit them to be lions,—but they are lions in the toils; ſurrounded by as brave and perſevering hunters, in the hovering hordes of arabs, as ever attacked the king of beaſts in the neighbouring deſerts.

'At Manſura, not a fourth part of the road to the capital, St. Lewis was firſt endangered and his career terminated. The new ſultan, Touran Shah, diſplayed as much ſkill as courage in his unceaſing attacks on the french camp, which was defended with the moſt heroic ſpirit and conſtancy: but the deſtruction of their cavalry expoſed their lines to the arab horſe, and the capture of their fleet of boats cut off all hope of ſuccour. In this extremity they endeavoured to fight back their way to Damietta; but at Fareſcour, about half

half the diſtance, after exhibiting prodigies of valour, St. Lewis and the remains of his army, amounting to 10,000 men, were obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of war; and to relinquiſh, on the part of France, all further attempts on Egypt, till that now on foot under the auſpices of Buonaparte.'

Soon after this, Mr. I. inquires, 'is Egypt likely to be the priſon or the grave of Buonaparte and his army?' In reply to this, he obſerves, that Alexander with a ſmaller force ſet out on his conqueſt of the world; and that the borders of the Nile might have been the firſt theatre, on which Buonaparte wiſhed to exhibit his valour and talents to the eaſtern hemiſphere. He preſumes, however, that India is ſecure, both by nature and art, from the effects of this irruption, and 'that the ſtorm muſt ſpend itſelf at a diſtance from that favoured and ſecluded region, if the commanders of his majeſty's fleet, and the governors of the company's ſettlements, but barely perform their duty.' After aſſerting, that the company's naval force alone might eaſily defeat ſuch an expedition as that ſtill ſaid to be meditated, either at Suez, Mocha, or the ſtraits of Babelmandel, and deprecating the idea of a falſe ſecurity at home, Mr. I. concludes thus:

P. 21.—'We are arrived at times, when probabilities are no longer to be weighed, but meaſures to be adopted againſt ſeeming impoſſibilities. Buonaparte's appearance in Egypt has put calculation to the bluſh; and his reaching the coaſt of India, is only wanting to make us dubious of every thing, but the ſucceſs of theſe marauders, in the breach of all faith, and the contempt of all rule and experience! Let the company, let the nation, be aware of the cataſtrophe. Though the preſent moment be unfavourable to him, Buonaparte may ſo far ſucceed in his views, as to eſtabliſh himſelf in Egypt. If the plague ſpare what his proweſs and military genius may preſerve from the ſword, a year or two may produce a revolution at ſea, to enable him to build and collect veſſels for his projected expedition. An admiral, whom I am proud to call my friend, has been long appointed to the indian ſtation. What delays the ſailing of ſir John Colpoys? and why are his local knowledge and enterpriſing talents ſo long withheld from the threatened ſcene of action? If a paſs be once made over the gulf that ſeparates Egypt and India, by the undaunted perſeverance of Buonaparte, the charm will be diſſolved, and our poſſeſſions conteſted. No leſs fatal will it prove to the britiſh grandeur, than the bridge which Satan threw over Chaos, to mankind, where

"Sin and death amain
Following his track, ſuch was the will of heaven,
Pav'd after him a broad and beaten way
Over the dark abyſs." MILTON.'

ART. XLV. *Reply to Irwin: or, The Feaſibility of Buonaparte's ſuppoſed Expedition to the Eaſt, exemplified.* By an Officer in the Service of the Eaſt-India Company. 8vo. 53 pages. Pr. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

We have already noticed the pamphlet to which this is intended as an anſwer [ſee the laſt number of our Rev.], and alſo the appendix to it [ſee the preceding article]. The dangers, the difficulties, the nearly inſurmountable obſtacles, to which an expedition to the Eaſt is ſubject, are all ably detailed in theſe two publications in the moſt glowing language, and moſt animated deſcription. Here, on the contrary, many of them vaniſh, and all are diminiſhed.

The author very juſtly obſerves, that the late brilliant naval victory can have but little effect on the operations of the hero of Italy:

P. 10.—'For if, as I truſt it will be admitted,' ſays he, 'the continuance of the french fleet in the Mediterranean could not have accelerated or co-operated in the meaſure of puſhing forward a diviſion of the army to the coaſts of the Red Sea from Grand Cairo, how, it may be aſked, can the defeat of that fleet fruſtrate ſuch an enterpriſe? Neither could its continuance on the ſouthern coaſt of Egypt have aided their embarkation at, and progreſs from, Suez. It certainly might have operated to keep the natives in awe immediately on the coaſts where it ſhewed itſelf, but it is not likely to have deterred the inhabitants of the interior from oppoſing the french army, provided they were diſpoſed to do ſo.

'The inference then that I would draw, with reſpect to the effect of this victory on Buonaparte's expedition is, (provided it be a part of his plan to get to India,) that the ſituation of the french army, rendered more deſperate by the intercourſe with the mother-country being interrupted, the general may feel the neceſſity of hazarding every thing in a prompt attempt to reach the ſhores of Aſia by a coup de main, which in every reſpect is the moſt likely, and perhaps the only plan by which he can hope for ſucceſs to his views: for if he delays until the britiſh governments of India are perfectly prepared for his arrival, the valour of the armies in that country, (which, though but poorly appreciated in Great Britain, needs not the teſtimony of my humble pen to hand its achievements down to poſterity amongſt the foremoſt ranks of britiſh heroiſm and glory,) and the neceſſary augmentation that will, it is preſumed, take place in the eſtabliſhments there, to receive with all due attention ſuch a magnanimous viſitor, will in all probability produce the effect of blaſting, in the tropical regions of Aſia, all thoſe laurels which he plucked from the more genial ſoil of Italy.

'The natural and other difficulties, predicted as terrific obſtacles to the progreſs of the french army at Cairo, have all been ſurmounted with a ſpirit of enterpriſe and celerity that has ſeldom been exceeded.

'The debarkation of an army of more than 22,000 fighting men, with all their neceſſary train of followers, baggage, ſtores, guns, &c. &c. has been effected in a foreign country, the important poſts of Alexandria, Roſetta, and Damietta taken by aſſault, garriſons eſtabliſhed in thoſe places, the civil government of them in ſome meaſure organiſed and confirmed; and the capital of Egypt, containing upwards of 400,000 inhabitants, has been triumphantly taken poſſeſſion of by an invading army, in nearly as ſhort a ſpace of time as would be required by any body of troops, under the coincidence of every favourable

favourable circumſtance, for the performance of a march over the ſame extent of country in the common courſe of military movements. And we are further informed by the public accounts, that a diviſion of the french army was actually ſent forward to Suez ſoon after the arrival of Buonaparte at Cairo.'

He next ridicules the oppoſition ariſing from the power of the turks in Egypt, and relates from Savary, that whenever any of the beys are diſpleaſed with the viceroy of the grand ſignior, their meſſengers only pronounce the words '*Inzil Pacha*,' on which he is obliged to flee for ſafety. He alſo obſerves, that the copts, who may form about one-third of the population, profeſs chriſtianity, and would doubtleſs join againſt the mohammedans, their preſent oppreſſors.

After this he points out the difference between the ſtate of the country when invaded by king Lewis and general Buonaparte, and animadverts on the greater difficulties encountered by the former, in conſequence of the military talents of Nedjim Ud-deen, and the application of the 'greek fire,' whence incredible miſchief was ſuſtained by the firſt adventurers.

The grand obſtacle to the enterpriſe is here ſaid to conſiſt in the difficulty of obtaining veſſels in the Red Sea, ſufficient to tranſport the army that may be deſtined for India. Among the various probable means of accompliſhing ſuch a bold ſcheme, the author points out the following:

P. 33.—'Firſt, not by engaging the pachas and beys of Egypt to ſummon their navy to Suez, but perhaps by the operations of a french naval commander in that country, who may have ſecured all the veſſels in the Red Sea, either by purchaſe or by force*. With reſpect to the number and deſcription of veſſels that may be found there, and the adjacent gulfs of Sinde, &c. I ſhall not pretend to give any poſitive opinion; but only obſerve, that colonel Capper's journal contains an account of veſſels of (I think) twelve hundred tons burden being uſed in the Red Sea to convey pilgrims from Suez to Jedda, the ſea-port of Mecca; and I have myſelf ſeen very fine ſhips, of five, ſix, and ſeven hundred tons burden, carrying on commerce in the indian ſeas, under arabian colours, and navigated and manned by natives of that country alone (I cannot take upon me to ſay to what particular ports they may have belonged). And although it may be objected to this ſtatement, that veſſels conſtructed like thoſe noticed by colonel Capper are not calculated for diſtant navigation in the more open ſeas, I think it would be raſh to conclude, that veſſels which can convey ſuch a hoſt of pilgrims the diſtance between Suez and Jedda (the moſt dangerous part of the navigation, perhaps, with reſpect to ſhoals, &c.) would [not] be cheerfully embarked on by an army, animated with the proſpect of a great and glorious achievement. There may doubtleſs be a riſk attending it; and is there any operation of war that is not attended with ſimilar difficulties and

'* Admiral Sercy, with three or four heavy frigates, beſides a variety of ſmaller veſſels fitted out as privateers, is ſtill buſy in the eaſtern ſeas, which he has infeſted the greater part of the preſent war.'

dangers, in a greater or leſſer degree? Perhaps, further, agents of the french in that quarter (and there is ſcarcely a part of the world, I believe, where they have not agents of ſome ſort) may have formed an alliance with, and ſecured the good offices of the ſherreif of Mecca, who has always evinced a rancorous ſpirit of jealouſy and ill-will towards the engliſh nation, excited, amongſt other cauſes, by the attempts that have been made to eſtabliſh commercial intercourſe in that quarter.

'And ſecondly, it may be aſked, where are the numerous ſhips which the french have captured, with ſucceſsful impunity, in the indian ſeas, during the preſent war? Where, but (for the moſt part, at leaſt) in the hands of the french, ready, for aught we know, to co-operate in the very deſign in queſtion.

'Amongſt a very numerous liſt of captures above alluded to, which I moſt ſincerely lament, the following ſtand prominent in my recollection: the Princeſs Royal, the Pigott, the Triton, (whoſe capture was a tranſaction of the moſt diſgraceful nature that perhaps was ever recorded of Britons,) the Raymond and Woodcote, regular engliſh eaſt indiamen; the Fort William country ſhip, nearly as large as any of the former; the Thomas, a large extra ſhip of laſt ſeaſon; the Kaunitz, a ſhip from Europe under genoeſe colours, captured at the mouth of the Calcutta river; a fine arab ſhip, with ſpecie on board; and a new ſhip from Pegue, of about eight hundred tons, captured about the ſame time and place with the Kaunitz (the end of 1796 and beginning of 1797); beſides many others of different deſcriptions, which I will not venture, from memory, to point out. The Triton was ſold at the Mauritius, and ſaid to be bought by an american, and under the colours of that nation ſhe inſultingly entered the port of Calcutta a few months after her capture. At all events, ſhe is ſtill trading in thoſe ſeas; and I ſhould ſuppoſe the owners would have no more objection to be taken up at the Iſle of France, to bring *freight* from the Red Sea, than from any other port in India.

'Thirdly; a great number of foreign ſhips, eſpecially americans and danes, reſort conſtantly to the french iſlands, and Batavia, and carry thither articles of american and european produce, as well as convey articles of proviſion and commerce between thoſe iſlands and India.

'On an occaſion like that under diſcuſſion, ſuppoſe the governor of the french iſlands was to engage a number of theſe ſhips to bring *ſupplies from the Red Sea*, they poſſibly might not refuſe; and if they did, the well-known want of ceremony practiſed by modern France will not, I think, allow us to heſitate as to the probability of their being *put in requiſition*.'

Having thus *gueſſed* at the mode of conveyance, the author alludes to the powers moſt likely to co-operate with the french, and theſe are Tippoo Sultaun, Zemaun Shah, king of Cabul, and perhaps Almaſs Ally Khan. In ſhort, this officer, who evinces much liberality and candour, ſeems to think in the emphatic language of Mr. Haſtings, that the fate of India is ſtill ſuſpended "BY A THREAD SO FINE, THAT THE TOUCH OF CHANCE MIGHT BREAK, OR THE BREATH OF OPINION DISSOLVE IT".

S.

LITERARY

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

HISTORY OF ACADEMIES.

ART. I. Amſterdam and the Hague. *Verhandeling van het Genoot-ſchap tot Verdediging van den chriſtelyken Godſdienſt, &c.* Memoirs of the Society for defending Chriſtianity, at the Hague. For the Year 1795. 8vo. 306 p. 1798.

The publication of the prize eſſays of this ſociety has hitherto been ſlow, ſo that it would have excited no wonder, if the preſent ſtate of the Netherlands had put a ſtop to it entirely: but this ſeems, on the contrary, rather to have operated as a ſtimulus on the ſociety; for we are informed, in this volume, that the prize eſſays of 1796 are in the preſs, and will ſpeedily be followed by thoſe of 1797.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

BOTANY.

ART. II. *Hanover.* The 4th number of the *Sertum Hanoveranum* [ſee our Rev. Vol. XXIII, p. 107] is publiſhed by Mr. Wendland alone, without the aſſiſtance of Mr. Schrader, and he intends to continue it under the title of *Hortus Herrenhuſanus*. The plants given in it are not leſs beautiful and intereſting than thoſe of the preceding numbers.

ART. III. *Botaniſche Beobachtungen, &c.* Botanical Obſervations, with ſome new Genera and Species, by J. Chriſt. Wendland, Superintendant of the Royal Electoral Gardens at Herrenhauſen, &c. Small fol. 64 p. 4 pl. 1798.

Mr. W. here gives us, in three ſections, ſeventy-three obſervations on botanical ſubjects, and deſcriptions of five new genera, and forty-three new ſpecies. He likewiſe promiſes us a continuation, which will be unqueſtionably acceptable to the lovers of botany.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

GEOGRAPHY.

ART. IV. Weimar. *Allgemeine Geographiſche Ephemeriden, &c.* The univerſal Geographical Ephemeris, &c. Nos IV—VI. March—June. p. 275—744, with 4 portraits, 2 charts, and a copious index. 1798.

We have already noticed the former two numbers of this intereſting publication, conducted by Mr. von Zach [ſee our Rev. Vol. XXVII, p. 437]. Among the moſt valuable papers in the preſent is an account, by Mr. Blumenbach, of the fruitleſs endeavours of the ruſſians, under captain Billings, to find a northern paſſage from the indian ſeas to Europe. Part of the ſix years ſpent in this enterprize captain Billings employed in a ſix months journey by land through the unexplored country of the tſhouktſhies, a narrative of which is now printing under the inſpection of the academy of Peterſburg. The mechanical performances of theſe inhabitants

of the polar regions, we are aſſured by Mr. Bl., are inexpreſſibly elegant. The needle-work of the women, in particular, is of a very ſuperiour kind, bearing an examination with the magnifying glaſs better than that of our european ladies.

Of the correſpondence the letters of Lalande and Burckhardt from Paris are moſt intereſting. From L. we learn, that 17 ſheets of his *Hiſtoire céleſte*, "Hiſtory of the Heavens," are printed; that his *Bibliographie Aſtronomique*, "Bibliography of Aſtronomy," is preparing for the preſs; and that a hiſtory of his own life, begun by Merſais and Dagelet, and brought down to 1798 by himſelf, is in the hands of Mr. von Zach. Montucla's Modern Hiſtory of Mathematics, the printing of which was begun, is at a ſtand for want of money: but de Borda's Tables of Sines for the centeſimal Diviſions of the Quadrant, and for every ten thouſandth part of a centeſimal degree, are already printed; and the logarithms of theſe ſines are in the preſs. Didot's new edition of Virgil in folio is the greateſt maſterpiece that ever iſſued from the preſs, according to Mr. L. The menſuration of an arc of the meridian in France, which has been carried on with wonderful exertion, perſeverance, and preciſion, by de Lambre and Mechain in particular, is nearly finiſhed. De Lambre is in every reſpect an extraordinary man. Mechain has injured his health by his labours; yet we may expect a grand work from him on the ſubject. The aſtronomer Piazzi of Palermo is alſo about to meaſure a degree in Sicily. In praiſe of Buonaparte, by whom Lalande was flattered with great delicacy, the learned aſtronomer cannot ſay enough. It was propoſed to Dr. Burckhardt, to accompany the learned expedition, which was to viſit Egypt and the Eaſt Indies under the auſpices of this general; but this he declined by the advice of Lalande. Buonaparte is accompanied by nineteen men of letters, among whom are Berthollet, Dolomieu, and Nouet the aſtronomer; and eighteen geographical engineers from the Polytechnic School.

We ſhall conclude with two meteorological obſervations of the editor.—In Thuringia a ſouthern wind occurs, which, like the ſirocco, ſimoom, and harmattan, deſtroys the tranſparency of the unclouded atmoſphere, ſo that the ſtars appear ſurrounded with a halo, and ſeems to conſiſt of a peculiar kind of gas.—And, in a clear ſky, a powerfully magnifying tranſit inſtrument is a better weather-glaſs than the barometer: a certain vacillation of the ſtars in their tranſit, whether by night or by day, indicating a change of the weather, a whole day before it takes place, with great certainty.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. v. Peſt. *Statiſtik des Königreichs Ungarn, &c.* Statiſtics of the Kingdom of Hungary. An Eſſay by Mart. Schwardtner, Prof. of Diplomatics, &c. 8vo. 606 p.

Mr. S. unites to a practical knowledge of public affairs great acuteneſs of reaſoning, his ſtyle is clear and pleaſing, and he conſtantly endeavours to ſupport whatever he advances by proofs, and by pointing out the ſources from which it is derived. Indeed he diſplays the qualities of his maſter, the celebrated Schlözer; and it is long ſince hungarian literature could boaſt a work like the preſent.

According

According to Schlözer's method, the ſtate of the country is firſt deſcribed; next it's conſtitution, and laſtly the adminiſtration of it's government. It would treſpaſs too much on our room, to extract the various information contained in this work: we ſhall only obſerve, therefore, that prof. S. reckons the population of the country to be about eight millions and half, of which number 4135952 are catholics, a million and half calviniſts, 800000 lutherans, 1800000 greek diſſidents, including the military frontier, and 75000 jews.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. VI. Dortmund and Leipſic. *Unterricht über die Cultur der Angoriſchen Kaninchen, &c.* Inſtructions for the Management of the Angora Rabbit, concerning it's Diſeaſes, and the beſt Method of rendering the Animal profitable, by J. C. F. Bährens, Ph. D. &c. 8vo. 48 p. 1796.

This is an uſeful book on the management of the Angora or ſilky-haired rabbit, which appears to have become an object of conſiderable attention in Germany. According to Dr. B., fifty grown rabbits will yield two pounds of wool every ſix weeks, or ſixteen pounds a year; which, at the loweſt price, or 5 r. [16s. 8d.] a pound, will amount to 80 r. [13l. 6s. 8d]. Deducting from this the expenſe of keeping 20 r. [3l. 6s. 8d], the clear annual profit will be 60 r. [10l]. The uſes of the wool, and the precautions to be taken to avoid the injurious effects of their effluvia, with others to be obſerved in their management, conclude the work. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

POETRY.

ART. VII. *Leipſic.* Goeſchen is printing a ſplendid edition of Klopſtock's Works, with plates, ſimilar to that of Wieland [ſee our Rev. Vol. XVIII, p. 360], in four volumes, two of which, containing his odes, are already publiſhed.

FINE ARTS.

ART. VIII. Baron Racknitz has publiſhed three numbers of his "Repreſentation and Hiſtory of the Taſte of the moſt diſtinguiſhed Countries," *Darſtellung und Geſchichte des Geſchmacks der vorzüglichſten Volker* [ſee our Rev. Vol. XXIII, p. 652]. Each contains ſix folio coloured plates of inſides of buildings, ſix of appropriate furniture, and twelve vignettes. The letter-preſs to the three numbers makes 330 p. 4to. The price of each number is 8 gold frederics [7l]. The ſubjects are greek, roman, ancient german, modern perſian, engliſh, french, otaheitean, mooriſh, turkiſh, ancient french, kamtſchadale, and mexican. The encouragement the work has experienced, notwithſtanding the price, which in fact is low compared with it's intrinſic value, and the unfavourable ſtate of the times for expenſive undertakings, is a ſtrong proof of it's merit: and indeed too much cannot be ſaid in praiſe either of the literary department of it, or of the plates. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

MISCELLANIES.

ART. IX. Paris. *Mélanges extraits des Manuſcrits de Mme. Necker.* Miſcellanies extracted from the Manuſcripts of Mme. Necker. Vol. 1. 8vo. 383 p. 6 [1798.]

Mr. Necker, the editor, has prefixed to theſe miſcellanies a character of his late wife, by himſelf, and another by Thomas, both written *con amore*. The work itſelf contains detached thoughts, remarks, and ſentiments, from the correſpondence and journals of the deceaſed, and ſome letters entire. Among the letters are ſome very intereſting ones to Thomas, Schomberg, Buffon, Marmontel, Sauſſure, Gibbon, and others. There are alſo fragments of letters to lord Stormont, Diderot, Grimm, Galliani, Chabanon, and St. Lambert: with inſtructive eſſays on reading; on the choice of books at different periods of life; on the manner in which books and authors are judged; on the influence of reading on our happineſs; remarks and characters from common life; on the utility and neceſſity of examining ourſelves with attention; on the difference between wit and genius; on the uſe of images, ſimilitudes, and alluſions; and a portrait of Emilia. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

EDUCATION.

ART. X. Ratiſbon. *Ueber den nächſten Zweck der Erzeihung, &c.* On the immediate Object of Education according to the Principles of Kant. By K. Weiller, Prof. at Munich. 8vo. 216 p. 1798.

Though we have already many excellent works on the ſubject of education, we do not know one, in which juſter notions are inculcated in a more impreſſive manner, than in this of Mr. W. The author employs the expreſſion, 'according to the principles of Kant,' becauſe his ſyſtem is founded on the nature of the human mind; but the work has not the leaſt trace of obſcure phraſeology. The object of education, in the opinion of Mr. W., is to give the pupil a capacity of employing his faculties. He obſerves: 'if you do not render your pupils ſtupid, by endeavouring to make them learned prematurely, they will become intelligent of themſelves: if you do not render them wicked, by attempting to make them angels too ſoon, they will naturally become good: if you do not render them miſerable, by your deſire to make them happy, they will of themſelves find the way to happineſs. Inſtead of your many arts to benefit them, learn the one greater art, not to injure them; and then nature will do the reſt almoſt without your aſſiſtance.' We would willingly gratify our readers with the excellent paſſage, in which the author endeavours to convince thoſe of their errour, who conſider the developement of reaſon as dangerous; but it would take up too much room. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

FOR

FOR THE

ANALYTICAL REVIEW,

FOR OCTOBER, 1798.

A

RETROSPECT *OF THE* ACTIVE WORLD:

OR,

A GENERAL REVIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS, AND PRACTICAL CONTROVERSIES, AND CONTESTS.

AT the deſire of ſeveral correſpondents, we are now to give ſome account of the NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCIENCES AND ARTS, at Paris, eſtabliſhed by an article in the conſtitution of the french republic, together with our obſervations on that plan, for collecting diſcoveries, and the improvement of arts and ſciences. This inſtitution we mentioned, in a very ſummary manner, in our laſt number: but of ſo grand and comprehenſive a deſign it is proper, agreeably to the ſentiments of our correſpondents, that we ſhould, in this paper, take more particular notice.

This eſtabliſhment belongs to the whole nation. I. It's object is the advancement of the arts and ſciences, by a courſe of uninterrupted inquiry, and a conſtant correſpondence with literary and philoſophical ſocieties in foreign nations: and particularly to mark and record the literary and ſcientific labours, that have for their object not only the general benefit of mankind, but the glory of the republic. II. It is compoſed of 144 members, reſident in Paris, and an equal number of aſſociates diſperſed throughout the different provinces of the republic. It's aſſociates in foreign nations are in number twenty-four: being eight for each of the three different claſſes. III. The inſtitute is divided into three claſſes, and each claſs into different ſections; thus:

Firſt claſs; ſciences, phyſical and mathematical; comprehending, 1. Mathematics; 2. Mechanical Arts; 3. Aſtronomy; 4. Experimental Phyſics; 5. Chymiſtry; 6. Natural Hiſtory, and Mineralogy; 7. Botany, and Vegetation in general: 8. Anatomy and Zoology; 9. Medicine and Surgery; 10. Rural Economy, and the veterinary Art.

Second claſs; moral and political ſciences; comprehending, 1. The Analyſis of Senſations and Ideas; 2. Morals; 3. The Science of the ſocial Order and Legiſlation; 4. Political Economy; 5. Hiſtory; 6. Geography.

Third Claſs; Literature and the fine Arts: comprehending, 1. Grammar; 2. Ancient Languages; 2. Poetry; 3. Antiquities and Monuments;

ments; 4. Painting; 5. Sculpture; 7. Architecture; 8. Muſic and Declamation.

THERE is not any ſubject in the whole courſe of human ſtudy and contemplation, that can poſſibly appear, to a cultivated and ſpeculative mind, ſo ſublime, intereſting, and advantageous, for the advancement of ſcience and the improvement of human nature, as a juſt claſſification of the different branches of knowledge: and it may be ſaid, of the grandeſt ſcale as well as of particular ſubjects of inveſtigation, *Qui bene dividit bene docet* *. This diviſion of the arts and ſciences, by the enlightened and excited genius of the french nation, at the preſent moment, cannot fail to attract the attention of the ingenious and learned. Every one who philoſophizes, who ſpeculates on general truth, makes, in his own mind, a claſſification of the different objects of truth or knowledge. The ancient metaphyſicians and logicians, as well as modern philoſophers, had their diviſions of arts and ſciences. But the firſt treatiſe that was written formally, as far as we have been informed, and for the ſole purpoſe of marking out a plan of all the branches of learning of which man is capable, was that on the advancement of knowledge, by the immortal Bacon. His plan has been adopted, with very little alteration, by every author that has followed him, and, of late years, by the authors of the french Encyclopædia. Theſe gentlemen, however, acknowledge much embarraſſment ariſing from the circumſtance, that, according to the arrangement of Bacon, it is poſſible to refer the different branches of knowledge either to the beings which they have for their object, or to the different faculties of the ſoul: for the greater the latitude of will, the more arbitrary, and leſs ſcientific the arrangement. Still, it was this laſt method they adopted: a method that involves many diſadvantages; as we eaſily could, and would readily ſhow, if this had not already been done, with great perſpicuity of expoſition, as well as ſolidity of judgment, and depth of penetration, by Mr. Florian in his Eſſay on an analytical courſe of ſtudies: which contains not only the beſt plan for the liberal education of youth; but is an excellent companion and guide to thoſe, who have made conſiderable advances, and ſtill purſue the paths of philoſophy. It is with great pleaſure, that we embrace the preſent opportunity of doing juſtice to this learned and ingenious ſtranger, whom the adverſity of the times, and the iniquity of fortune, have compelled to take ſhelter in this country †. One brief quotation from Mr. Florian will ſhow the principle and ſpirit of his reaſoning on the ſubject in queſtion: for a farther illuſtration of which we muſt refer to the Eſſay.

'In general, the philoſophers who have treated of the origin of human knowledge have reaſoned thus—"We acquire our knowledge by thinking," and therefore we ought, in the firſt place, to inquire how it is we think." But the human mind does not appear ordinarily to follow this route. Our firſt obſervations are more naturally made on thoſe ſenſations which we receive from the objects that ſurround us, than upon the manner itſelf in which we receive thoſe ſenſations. In making that our firſt ſtudy, which affects our ſenſes, we proceed with certainty from that which

* See introduction to this Retroſpect, in our number for january, 1797.

† Mr. Florian propoſes to carry his plan into execution, in an academy, which he is going to open at Bath; and in which we ſincerely wiſh him all ſucceſs.

we

we know, to that which we know not: whereas if we begin by reſearches into the manner in which we receive ideas, and the faculty of acquiring knowledge, we at once find ourſelves caſt upon a ſea of hypotheſes, without rudder or compaſs to direct us.'

It appears to have been under the ſame, or very ſimilar notions, that the enlightened legiſlature of France, in the formation of the national inſtitute, have departed from the arrangements of lord Bacon, and the encyclopædiſts; and followed the natural order, in which we, in fact, acquire knowledge, namely, through our ſenſations. The mind is employed on matter before it is, or can be employed on itſelf. The national inſtitute, therefore, with great propriety, places in the ſame, and the firſt claſs, the ſtudies that are, in part, objects of ſenſation. It then goes on, in another, and the ſecond claſs, to ſtudies in which the mind is employed either on it's own operations or recollections; and laſtly, it treats, in another, and third claſs, of ſuch ſtudies as are either acceſſary to ſcience, or pleaſing in themſelves. This claſſification of ſtudies, or the objects of human knowledge, is judicious, comprehenſive, profound, and worthy the moſt enlightened nation in the world.

Although minerals form a part of the natural world, it is with perfect propriety, that mineralogy is added in the ſixth article of the firſt claſs to the general ſubject of natural hiſtory, becauſe it holds both of natural hiſtory and chemiſtry. We notice alſo the juſt preciſion of the ſeventh article in the ſame claſs, botany and vegetation in general: for beſides that there are bodies, which, in the opinion of ſome, are organized by a proceſs of vegetation, that do not properly fall under the denomination of herbs, or plants of any kind, the proceſs of vegetation is, to botany, what chemiſtry is to mineralogy.

The claſſification of *muſic* with *declamation*, in the eighth and laſt article of the third claſs, will, doubtleſs, attract attention, and may, perhaps, at firſt ſight, appear affected and whimſical. Nevertheleſs, on due conſideration, the union of muſic and declamation will appear to be perfectly accurate, and founded on the nature of things: both being addreſſed to the human paſſions. The *concord of ſweet ſounds* is common to both: and the moſt touching part of muſic is the reſemblance between it's various tones and the various expreſſions* of grief, joy, love, and other emotions and paſſions, in different nations. The power of oratory is ſomewhere compared to muſic in the ſacred writings aſcribed to Solomon.

> 'The angel ended, and in Adam's ear
> So charming left his voice, that he awhile
> Thought him ſtill ſpeaking, ſtill ſtood fix'd to hear.'
>
> Parad. Loſt. Book VIII.

Indeed the compariſon of impreſſive and pleaſing muſic is quite common, as it is quite natural.

If we might hazard a ſtricture on any article in an arrangement formed by ſo accompliſhed a body, it would be on that of 'monuments and other antiquities,' in the third claſs, compriſing literature and the fine arts. In our opinion, they would have been more properly placed in the ſecond claſs, along with hiſtory, to whom they are handmaids. The

* From the various accents of various nations ariſe the characters of national muſic. The iriſh brogue and howl, and alſo the ſcotch pronunciation, are nearly akin to the plaintive, though affecting and pleaſing ſtrains, of both the ſcotch and iriſh muſic.

ſchools,

ſchools, repoſitories, rewards, honours, and, in a word, all the various means and inſtrumentality for carrying the deſigns of the french in favour of the arts and ſciences into execution, are worthy of ſo intelligent, ſo active, ardent, and magnificent a nation.

The grand deſign of the national inſtitute is, to repair the ravages of vandaliſm committed in the fury of the revolution; to ſoften and humanize the public mind, by turning the attention and application of generous and ſenſible ſpirits to the arts and ſciences as the nobleſt, and only field (after war, with it's neceſſity, ſhall have ceaſed) of emulation and glory; to add to the common ſtock of human knowledge, and multiply the comforts of mankind; and, at the ſame time, particularly, to ſearch for, and preſerve ſuch works, diſcoveries, and inventions, as may contribute to the glory of the french republic.

It was impoſſible, in this paper, to paſs by the national inſtitute of France, without particular notice. If war ſhall ceaſe, and the republic be eſtabliſhed and compoſed under wiſe organical laws, the protection of property, juſt repreſentation, and equal taxation; than which nothing is now to be more ardently wiſhed for by all the ſurrounding nations: then may we expect, that this noble inſtitution will advance the arts and ſciences, and with theſe the reſources of humankind, in a rapid progreſſion; not only by the diſcoveries, inventions, and compoſitions of their own active and fertile minds; but by diffuſing from the centre of France, a keener taſte, and a more animated application, to all kinds of improvement.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

We have promiſed to compare the policy of the modern republic of Paris with that of ancient Rome. Before we enter on this ſubject, it will be proper to attend to the character of the french nation. That of the ancient romans we have all ſtudied at ſchool.

The general character of the french, from the period in which it was deſcribed by Cæſar to the preſent day, has been invariably diſtinguiſhed by certain indelible features. Other nations have been moulded and changed by various political revolutions. The french, under every new form of government and religion, retain their characteriſtic diſpoſition, and genius. They are the moſt univerſally and the moſt ſenſibly and ſuddenly alive to the paſſion of the times. Whatever they wiſh they purſue with ardour, and in a body. Supereminence is always their aim, whether in gayety and frivolity, or wiſdom and arms. And ſuch is the advantage of their local poſition in Europe, and ſuch the energy of their action, and influence of their example, that in the midſt of convulſion among themſelves, they impreſs their neighbours with the greateſt alarm. This national ſpirit was well underſtood by the ableſt rulers of France in former times, and managed with much addreſs and wiſdom. Henry IV ſubdued it by his generoſity: Sully governed it by his probity, his economy, and, above all, by his ſteadineſs: Lewis XIV led it to conqueſt: and, at a time, when France frequently ſuffered the ſevereſt diſtreſs in her interiour, he would have overpowered Europe, had not the policy of William III, and the cooperations of Marlborough and Eugene interpoſed to check his career. William, though ſeldom victorious in the field, was yet a hero, and he was great in the cabinet.

cabinet. He united nations, the moſt diſcordant in their intereſts, by availing himſelf of their predominant paſſions. Theſe paſſions were, in England as well as in Holland, a ſpirit of independence in property, religion, and government. He alarmed the european ſtates for their general ſafety, and, in order to repreſs the ambition of France, taught them the ſyſtem of the balance of power.

Marlborough and Eugene did more. The firſt by manners the moſt conciliatory and ſeducing, and a temper ſuperiour to all irritation, gained every foreign power with whom he treated: the latter cooperated with him in all his views: both were agreed upon a ſyſtem, which might be ſaid, in ſome meaſure, to control the accidents of war by general principles. They united the financial credit of England, and of Holland, with the military force of the german empire.

It required, nevertheleſs, the capacity and perſeverance of William, ſuſtained by the utmoſt efforts of thoſe generals, effectually to reſiſt the ambition of Lewis XIV, and repreſs the impulſe, which he had given to the pride and ſpirit of the french people. That monarch, great and venerable in the eyes of his ſubjects, even in the midſt of his greateſt diſtreſſes, had taught them to conſider his glory, and the very reverſes of his fortune, as their own. But, the ſucceeding reigns of the regent and Lewis XV added nothing either to the glory or the ſolidity of the french monarchy. The magnificence and diſſipation of the court, though they ſerved to amuſe the nation, yet left it, in reality, only the empty diſtinction of preſiding over the faſhions of Europe; while rival and inferiour ſtates acquired wealth, importance, and fame.

The revolution in America, which the french court had imprudently favoured, by reaction ſtruck the crown from the head of Lewis XVI. A thouſand cauſes conſpired to overthrow the monarchy. The doctrine of repreſentation and taxation became faſhionable in France. After the ineffectual convocation of the ſtates general, the conſtituent and legiſlative aſſemblies followed. The aſſignats were ſtruck, and the throne was, at once, diveſted of the two great powers, that had ſuſtained it for ages: the right of coining, collecting, and diſpoſing of the money of the ſtate; and the faculty, which the court poſſeſſed, of directing, through the medium of the faſhion, and tone the national character. Theſe reſpective prerogatives conſtitute the reins, by which every government is able to rule or reſtrain the people. If theſe curbs are broken, or put into other hands, a revolution neceſſarily follows. In France, more than in any other country of Europe, it may be aſſerted, that public opinion has always ſupported, and, in ſome meaſure, conſtituted the very eſſence of government. Even in articles of decoration and taſte, faſhion aſſumes the character of rage, and almoſt of madneſs. When this rage, converted into a new channel by the diffuſion of commerce and knowledge, had ſeized the whole body of the people in purſuit of liberty, it's violence knew no bounds, and it became literally madneſs. To ſuch attacks of moral and political phrenzy, their greateſt hiſtorians have remarked, that the french have been ſubject, in different periods of time *.

* See particularly the hiſtory of France, by Mr. Wraxall, which relates the great political events in the order of cauſe and effect, and delineates, throughout, the genius, ſpirit, and character of the french nation. This work, to which we readily acknowledge great obligations, is replete with inſtruction, at all times curious and important; but in the preſent peculiarly intereſting and ſeaſonable.

There

There was one reſtraint capable of moderating it's fury: but that reſtraint had been ſurrendered or uſurped, when the conſtituent aſſembly created paper money hypothecated on plunder, inſtead of conſtitutional taxation. The convulſions, which ſucceeded to this event in France, were, in fact, only the violence of one faction labouring to undermine another, in order to gain the command of the new treaſury, the public patronage, and the ſtate.

The leaders of the revolution being thus in poſſeſſion of the public mind, ſupported by the whole ſource of public reſource, the national character burſt forth in all it's impetuoſity, and could no longer be reſtrained within any ſober limits. The people of Switzerland, of Holland, of England, and America, who had ſucceſſively emancipated themſelves from the yoke of their reſpective governments, were ſatisfied with the acquiſition of independence for themſelves. The french demanded it for the world; and, in their enthuſiaſm, called out for a conſtitution more free than that of England, more pure, and bearing a nearer reſemblance to that of ancient Rome. This idea, originating in national vanity, and encouraged by deep and deſigning men, opened the way to the ſubſequent conqueſts of the revolution. There was only one ſyſtem, by which the revolution could have been moderated, and reſtrained. Unfortunately, the reverſe of that ſyſtem was followed by the french ariſtocracy, and their allies among foreign nations.

It was evident to thoſe who had ſtudied the character of the french nation, that their ardour in the purſuit of freedom would far exceed that of any people, who had preceded them in the ſame career. But, there was likewiſe mixed with much violence, a generous ſenſibility, which might have been eaſily awakened to ſome portion of their ancient regard to their monarchs, their nobles, and even their clergy. Had the revolution, therefore, been left to it's firſt exploſion, the enormities of it's authors would have ſhocked the people; the rights of property would have re-aſſumed their influence; the general protection afforded by a limited monarchy would have dictated the eſtabliſhment of that form of government, in preference to any other; and the crown would have reſted on the ſureſt baſis: the affection and confidence of the nation. But it's weak or infatuated adherents, undertook to reſtore it, independently of public ſpirit: independently of the rights, will, or prejudices of the people. In the proſecution of theſe attempts, the ariſtocracy and their foreign allies gave every advantage to the jacobins. The royaliſts would liſten to no reaſon, to no compromiſe. They firſt abandoned the king and the kingdom, at the moment when they ſhould have remained at home, in order to form an union for reſiſting or managing the ſtorm; and they next called in to their aid, foreign invaſion; which turned the whole tide of affairs in favour of their adverſaries.

The european powers, who coaleſced for their ſupport, fell, if poſſible, into ſtill greater errours. By planning the diſmemberment of France, they extended her limits. By projects to ſtarve the french people, they improved the general cultivation of the land; by proclaiming and inſulting her ſtate of bankruptcy, they forced her to find finance: till, at length, leſs by the abilities of her rulers, than from the errours of her opponents, France aroſe into a victorious republic, the terrour of Germany and of Italy; no longer content with her ancient limits, and aſſuming, for boundaries, the Alps and the Rhine. The policy which had actuated the directors of the revolution, previouſly to what is denominated

nominated the third year of the republic, was various, and ſometimes contradictory. But, in no moment did it forget to adapt itſelf to the predominant diſpoſition, or paſſion of the people. Their firſt object, after perſuading the maſs of the french nation, that they were henceforth to enjoy the ſovereignty, was, carefully to demoliſh every link, every title, and every trace of the former ſovereignty. They next contrived to effect, through the new finance of the aſſignats, a complete tranſmutation of the property of the ſtate. It was made the intereſt of the inferiour orders, to exclude, for ever, the court, the church, and the nobility, from their ancient poſſeſſions. All the lands were parcelled out and ſold for aſſignats, on theſe having been fabricated and iſſued to thouſands of individuals, who previouſly poſſeſſed not any property; but who, as ſoldiers, or as labourers, could eaſily acquire that kind of money.

The great body of the people were induced, without difficulty, to become the cultivators of their own ground, or to bear arms in the field for their country. Until the ruling factions at Paris began alternately to maſſacre each other, the nation beheld the tumult of that metropolis with indifference, while they ſtedfaſtly purſued the two great objects of perſonal property and public preeminence: thus the genius, the diſpoſition, and the energy of the french nation, were on the whole, engaged in ſupport of the revolution. If any thing could have opened the eyes of the emigrants and the combined powers, who ſtill fondly hoped, that the general voice would welcome an invaſion, and favour a counter-revolution, it was the circumſtance, that all the ſeparate projects of the revolutionary leaders were always turned againſt themſelves, when they attempted to convert the general ſpirit to their own perſonal or political purpoſes. The revolution, once begun, became ſtronger than either it's authors or it's leaders, both of whom were ſucceſſively carried on by it's impulſe, and could no longer obſtruct it's career. Neither the ſoldiers who had been ſucceſsful in battle, nor the citizens who participated in the multiplied adminiſtrations, could be ſeduced in a body from their new attachments. It was therefore abſurd to expect either that the revolution could be ſuddenly reverſed, or that the monarchy could be reſtored to it's antient ſtate by any ſchemes of counter-revolution, ſince all the materials of which it had been compoſed were either diſperſed or conſumed.

The directory, ſenſible of theſe facts, in proportion as their power became conſolidated, adopted a policy more ſyſtematic and profound. Then it was, that the new government of France unveiled the policy of the roman commonwealth, and reſolved, as a fixed principle, to ſecure their power, by an invariable endeavour to effect it's increaſe. The ſtrength of the roman republic had ariſen from the original purity and gradual improvement of it's political inſtitutions. It's power was conſtantly increaſed even by reverſes of fortune: nor can it be ſaid to have been wholly overthrown till ſeveral ages after it had ſubdued or overrun the world. The power of the french republic, on the contrary, aroſe from the abuſes, or the weakneſs of the government that had preceded it; ſpread with the corruptions of the age in which it originated; and acquired ſtrength from the general ſituation of affairs, and the miſtaken policy of ſurrounding

ing nations. But at the ſame time it is not to be denied, that whatever the contraſt between the moſt ancient romans and modern french, the revolution had compelled the latter to exerciſe the virtues that flow from a ſtate of poverty and war: at the ſame time that they derived from the deſtruction of all property, and all perſonal diſtinctions, certain advantages over their more opulent neighbours. The great body of the people had become ſoldiers, cultivators of the ſoil, or magiſtrates: but while they acted alternately in each of theſe capacities, and the ſureſt road to either fortune or fame was that of military diſtinction, great and various talents were brought into the public ſervice. Hence the revolutionary war of France has produced ſo many diſtinguiſhed generals, and an army ſo highly diſciplined, and in all reſpects ſo much ſuperiour to thoſe formed on the ancient tactics It is by the application of a national force ſo conſtituted, that the directory have reſolved to ſeek through new paths the fortune and the renown of ancient Rome. With the ſame view they have arrogated the title of 'the great nation; the ſovereign republic, one and indiviſible,' and declared it treaſon to treat with any power, that ſhould propoſe a reſtoration of any country or poſſeſſion once integrated with the republic. Having conſtituted a revolutionary power, they next formed the project of encircling France with new and dependent commonwealths: meaning thereby, not only to ſecure the authority they have already acquired, but by fully occupying the turbulent genius of the nation, to eſtabliſh univerſal dominion on univerſal revolution. Let the cabinets of Europe beware how they conſider theſe projects as impracticable! Let them reflect on that policy, which has produced, and organized, and now governs the dependent republics of Holland, of Switzerland, and Italy. Plans for effecting a ſimilar revolution in Ireland are happily laid open. Embryo republics of the Elbe, of Poland, of Hungary, of Greece, and of Gallicia, are darkly and ſecretly in machination. That this political machinery of the directory is, in every reſpect, ſimilar to that of ancient Rome, every one knows who has either read the Roman Hiſtory, or the political and philoſophical comments thereon, of Machiavel, Monteſquieu, or Ferguſon. They took care never to have more than one enemy on their hand, at a time. They began their operations with learning the characters of the chiefs, and the ſtate of parties, and fomenting diviſions. They excited diſſenſions and diſtractions in the nation they meant to invade, and eſpouſed the cauſe of one party, in whoſe name they exerciſed themſelves the ſovereign power, much in the ſame manner that our Eaſt India company have acquired and ſupported their government in India. The directory, like the romans, make war, not as enemies, but as friends and protectors. Like the romans they affect to govern diſtant countries by influence and management, without ſeizing on them immediately and openly as poſſeſſions. Like the ſenate, too, the directory and the councils avow open and eternal war againſt one rival, while they affect to offer peace and amity to other nations. They have marked out their Carthage, the deſtruction of which they affirm to be neceſſary for the freedom of the ocean, and the peace of the world. Even in ſpite of their recent diſaſters, in their late

MESSAGE OF THE FIFTH OF SEPTEMBER TO THE COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED,

They declare, that 'the powers to whom they are offering peace will find, if they reject it, that they exiſt only by the condeſcenſion of the directory.' They do not even affect to conceal, that the great object of theſe generous offers of partial peace to other nations is, decidedly, 'to ſtrike at the cabinet of London, by ſea, in India, and in the very heart of their iſland.' The meſſage, in which this inſolent language was held, demanded an augmentation of the ſupplies of the year, and a new levy of troops: and 200,000 men, and 125 millions were immediately voted. So much for the riſe and progreſs of the enormous power and ambition of the preſent rulers of France. In our next number we ſhall offer ſome conſiderations on the vanity and folly of the attempts, that have hitherto been made, in order to reduce that power, and moderate that ambition; and a brief inquiry into the means that may yet remain for compoſing the paſſions of the french nation, by turning their natural genius and diſpoſition into the happieſt, as well as nobleſt channels, and reſtoring peace and concord to France and to Europe.

We have juſt ſeen the effects of our naval victories on the french government. The nation at large, however, are known to ſigh for peace; and it remains to be proved by time, whether the wiſhes and the intereſts of the french people will ultimately prevail over the ambition and ſelfiſh views of the directory and public functionaries, or whether that ambition and theſe views will be able ſtill to command the reſources and direct the force of the nation. We have not yet been informed of the effects of admiral Neiſon's victory on

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL:

The latter kingdom will, no doubt, be confirmed in her open, and the former in her ſecret attachment to Great Britain.

ITALY.

The court of Naples, in habits of intimacy, as well as the bonds of conſanguinity, with that of Vienna, ſhows the moſt decided and open joy and congratulation, on the ſucceſs and predominancy of the engliſh power in the Mediterranean; the joy of the other italian ſtates, though concealed, will, probably, be little leſs ſincere.

GERMANY.

The victory at Alexandria has produced ſome happy effects, and will, probably, produce more on the council at Raſtadt.

TURKEY.

Though we participate in the general joy at the ſucceſs of our arms, and the check that has been given to the ambitious career of our enemies, we acknowledge a degree of ſympathy and concern for the perſonal ſituation of BUONAPARTE, certainly a ſublime genius; and who has given repeated indications of a ſpirit of moderation, juſtice, and political wiſdom, that ſeemed to deſtine him for the leader and chief of the french nation, againſt the continued uſurpations of

the executive government. He has erred in his calculations of ſupport from the turks and arabs. The genius of turks and arabs is not ſo ſubject to our political calculations as that of european nations. It is an object of great curioſity, to know what ſuch a genius and hero will do in ſuch circumſtances; what reſources he will find in his invention, or what reſolution from deſpair.

The coalition between

RUSSIA AND THE PORTE

is a great novelty in politics, and ſtrongly marks an extraordinary revolution in the affairs of Europe. The ottoman court appear to have perfectly underſtood the views of the directory; though it endeavoured to obſerve a neutrality as long as it was poſſible. All the manifeſtoes of the grand ſignior are drawn up with a brevity, preciſion, juſtneſs, dignity, and manly ſenſe, that are ſeldom to be found in thoſe of the european courts, or the memorials of diplomatiſts.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The victories obtained over the french at ſea, by lord Nelſon and ſir John Warren, will be great bleſſings indeed, both to this nation, and to all Europe, if they be the means of obtaining a juſt and ſafe peace; by ſeizing the preſent occaſion to ſhow a ſpirit of juſtice and moderation, to offer a reſtoration of all our conqueſts to their right owners, on the condition of thoſe made by owners being reſtored to their former independence; and to call on the french nation, and all the governments of Europe, to join the britiſh government in a general plan of the protection of property, and the rights of nations.

ERRATUM.

In our Retroſpect for September laſt, in our account of an invention of captain Schank, for 'a ſhip of ſixty guns,' read 'a ſhip of ſixty tons.'